

Psychological Bulletin

EDITED BY

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Psychological Bulletin

CHILDREN AND WAR

ARTHUR T. JERSILD AND MARGARET F. MEIGS

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This review deals with the impact of war upon children as revealed by findings in systematic research studies, reports by observers in the field, and by governmental agencies. It must be regarded as an interim report, since most of the studies that have been made in connection with the present war are limited in scope, and investigators are not as yet in a position to probe some of the long-term effects. Moreover, there is little or no available scientific literature dealing with the condition of the millions of children who live in several belligerent or invaded areas in Europe and Asia and who, to varying degrees, are subject to malnutrition and other ravages of war.

Reference will also be made to material dealing with the war of 1914-1918. This material is quite meager, as contrasted with the mounting volume of literature in the present war, for which earlier reviews, bibliographies, and books and articles aimed primarily at parents, are 8, 22, 33, 35, 48, 53, 64, 113, 117. In the *Bulletin* of September, 1918, a general review of child psychology for the preceding two-year period (86) mentions only one empirical study dealing with children's reactions to war. More extensive are the reports dealing with physical health and growth during and following the war of 1914-1918, but even these offer relatively little concerning the long-term as distinguished from the immediate effects of wartime ordeals. It is to be hoped that plans for the relief and rehabilitation of populations in stricken areas during and following the present war will include some provision for follow-up research.

CHILDREN'S INFORMATION, CONCEPTS, ATTITUDES, AND EMOTIONAL REACTIONS TO THE IDEA OF WAR

The impact of war on a child will, of course, be influenced to some degree by his understanding of what is happening, his ability

to grasp the implication not only of events that he can perceive but also of happenings on distant fronts. These larger implications, including apprehensions and hopes with regard to the future, play an important role in the concerns of an enlightened adult.

Available findings indicate that children's understanding of the meaning of war shows characteristics that parallel the developmental trends that have been noted in studies of children's grasp of other more peaceable social issues. There are increases with age in the amount of knowledge that children possess and in the extent to which they grasp the concept of war. On the other hand, the younger child may exhibit attitudes, such as strong partisanship against the enemy, similar to those shown by the more knowing older child. While his lack of understanding may render him immune to some apprehensions that disturb adults, he may still be affected by worries betrayed by his elders.

Various studies indicate that the concepts concerning war exhibited by a large proportion of children below the age of 12 involve much in the nature of disconnected snatches of knowledge, or confused understanding of military and diplomatic events, international complications and geographical relationships. However, individual children as young as 6 or 7 years may possess a rather large store of information concerning the progress of the war, the alignment of belligerents, the civil and military leaders, and the prevailing campaigns (42).

Kimmins (73) briefly describes findings obtained from essays written a little more than a year after the outbreak of the war of 1914-1918 by 1511 British boys and 1570 British girls of elementary school age, who were told to write as much as they could about the war in 15 minutes. The results are not presented quantitatively in terms of a well-defined list of categories, but in the form of descriptive accounts. Kimmins reports that at 8 years children's statements gave a blurred account of various activities involved in the conduct of war and a "confused mass of actions and ideas," including references to guns going off, ships sinking, and the like. At 8 years and at succeeding levels, girls gave considerably more emphasis than did the boys to the human aspects, the sufferings of the soldiers and of Belgian children, of heroic deeds, of hardships suffered by relatives, and of the impact of war on the home by way of scarcity and dearth of food, etc. There was an increase with age in amount of detail and expression of

opinion. It was not until about 11 years and thereafter that a substantial number of children dealt not only with the immediate present but also with the recent past, made references to the future, discussed the origin of the war, regarded the war as a connected whole, referred to higher motives, such as freedom, weighed the chances of success, showed some realization of the war's magnitude, with some sense of proportion and with less attention to particular events. At all ages there was little reference to Britain's allies, other than Belgium, or to Germany's allies.

The most comprehensive study dealing with children's information and ideas concerning war is an investigation by Preston (95) undertaken early in 1940, before the war had become much of a reality to the children in our own country. A test of information, based upon a careful gleaning of topics prominently in the news, and a test of attitudes were administered to 581 8-15 year-old children in the metropolitan New York area. The average IQ was 111.3; the population was above average in socio-economic status. One hundred of the children were also questioned in private interviews.

The average percentage of correct replies on the informational part of the test was 60 at age 9-10, 66 at 11-12, and 79.7 at 13-14. Larger differences were found when children were grouped according to mental age levels. Larger age differences were also noted in connection with specific items of the test. For example, at age 9-10, 55% and 62% failed items relating to the relative size respectively of the German *versus* the British air force and the British *versus* the German navy. The corresponding percentages of error at 13-14 were 35 and 18. The correlation between information scores and ratings with respect to attitude was only .14. Preston concludes that at the time of his study "a rather large proportion of children under about 13 years appear to lack a spontaneous attraction toward, preoccupation with, and capacity for mastering the intricacies involved in a war situation." Both Kimmins and Preston note a good deal of confusion in the ideas of the younger children; both note a good deal of ignorance or unawareness with regard to the international aspects of the conflict.

Bender and Frosch (10), in a study in 1942 of 40 children 7-13 years old who were patients in a psychiatric ward, report that children showed a tendency to visualize the war concretely; their response was on a perceptual rather than a conceptual level.

Many of the children were uninformed concerning the alignment of the belligerents and concerning leaders in various countries. A lack of discernment concerning the possible economic and domestic consequences of war was noted in a study by Cronbach (26) of 498 high school pupils in November, 1941.

Preston repeated his 1940 procedures, with adaptations, in 1942, to explore changes that might have occurred in children's answers by reason of our participation in the war. Tentative findings (privately communicated), limited to 25 children, indicate an increased absorption in the war without a corresponding increase in accuracy of interpretation of events as reported in the news. A somewhat increased concern with the war after our own country became involved was noted also by Tangney (107) in a study of high school children's interest in various features of daily newspapers. Bender and Frosch (10) report that from February, 1942, to June, 1942, there was a tendency toward more blaming of the German people, as distinguished from Hitler alone, and increased indications of some understanding of the global scope of the war.

In a study of a somewhat select group of 21 first-grade children (mean IQ 120) in the winter and spring of 1943, Geddie (42) found that the median child correctly named and identified the leaders of three of the belligerent nations and correctly indicated three parts of the world in which American troops then were located, and some of the young children were able to give quite accurate reports of the current status of campaigns in various sectors. The fact that children at or near the adolescent level are interested in factual information and in matters both of personal and social responsibility is indicated in returns obtained by Corey (24) when pupils in four high school classes (exact enrollment not specified) in Chicago were asked early in 1942 to write questions concerning the war.

Under the auspices of the Boy Scouts of America (123), information concerning some reactions of boys of Scout and Cub age was obtained in the summer and fall of 1942 through interviews with 633 children and adults widely distributed geographically. Over two-thirds of the adults who were interviewed reported that the behavior of children had changed since the war began, notably in the direction of a new consciousness of worldwide problems and a more serious interest in current affairs. Four out of every 5 boys stated that "something might happen

here" (in the form, for example, of air raids, sabotage, espionage, invasion). Such opinions were more widespread among older boys and among boys living in metropolitan areas than among younger boys and boys living in smaller communities.

Attitudes toward War and War Service. Before and shortly after our country's involvement in the present war, many studies of children's attitudes showed notable absence of a tendency to glorify war and warriors, or to look upon war as an adventurous enterprise. In studies by Preston (95) and Bender and Frosch (10), desire for material gain or to protect material advantages was mentioned most frequently as a cause of war. Kimmins (73) in 1915 found that mention of noble motives for waging war was not common until near the end of the elementary school period. Forty-three per cent of the boys in Preston's study and 47% of the girls expressed doubt as to whether war can ever be abolished.

References to war as terrible, dreadful, full of killing, and the like, were prominent in essays by 55 sixth-grade children in an unpublished study by Gastwirth and Silverblatt (41).

At 9-10 years, 73% of the children in Preston's study (95) rated the head of an army as "more important" than the head of a police system or the head of a school; at 13-14 years, only 18% named the head of an army as being most important. When explaining their motives for choosing the branch of war service they would prefer, 52% of the boys and 17% of the girls showed regard for their own personal safety; 23% and 30% respectively made choices in terms of avocational interests, and only 10% and 7% mentioned a desire for adventure as the reason for their choice. In a study by Bell (9) conducted in 1935, 11.9% of male youth aged 16-24 reported that they would refuse to enter the armed forces. The reviewers do not have data with respect to the percentage of youth who proved to be conscientious objectors after our involvement in the war, but the percentage is undoubtedly much less than 11.9.

Some investigators (10, 26) express the opinion that viewpoints such as those reviewed above reflect pacifistic sentiments widely held by adults in the interim between the war of 1914-1918 and the present war. In a study (66) which noted a tendency toward a shift away from extreme pacifist attitudes during the years 1936-1938 in California at the high school level, it was noted, among other matters, that "extreme left" pacifists were among those who swung sharply in favor of a policy of war against

peace-breaking nations. Findings concerning changes in attitude at the college level have been reported by V. Jones (68). In a study by Sherman (98) conducted during the months of June and July, 1942, written or oral expressions concerning the war were obtained from 7000 Chicago children of high school age. The attitudes expressed by the children were classified under six headings with frequencies as follows: definite antagonisms toward the war, 5%; critical attitude, 6%; indifference, 21%; confusion about the war and its issues, 12%; mildly favorable, 9%; favorable, without criticism, 26%; strongly favorable, including vindictiveness toward the enemy, 21%.

War Play. The penetration of the war into children's play has been noted in several studies (7, 10, 33, 42, 95). According to observations communicated to the interviewers, war play is prominent in the play of kindergarten children in many localities, and it appears also in the play of nursery school children. War play has been observed to be considerably more prominent among boys than among girls (42, 95).

Emotional Response to War Themes. The matter of children's emotional reactions to the ideas or reminders of wartime happenings (as distinguished from actual bombing or evacuation) has been touched upon in some studies. Bender and Frosch (10), in the study conducted after our entry into the war, found relatively little anxiety traceable to the war in the dreams reported by children in a psychiatric clinic. Other studies report that dreams about the war were mentioned by 8 of 29 normal sixth-grade children interviewed in the spring of 1942 (41), and by 9 of 21 first-grade intellectually superior children interviewed in the spring of 1943 (42). Bender and Frosch (10), report that their subjects responded with relish to a puppet show, on a war theme, which some adult previewers had disapproved as too harrowing for children. They cite this as an example to indicate that the meanings and attitudes associated by adults with the idea of war may be quite different from the associations aroused in children. They also report that their subjects apparently did not anticipate or visualize a danger in the future and react to it in terms of anxiety, but they note that children with severe personality disorders showed a tendency to weave their own problems into the war situation. Despert (33) also describes ways in which war themes may be introduced into play and fantasy by disturbed children.

The youngster who is unable, to the same degree as an adult,

to anticipate and fear future events may still react with strong feeling to the idea of circumstances that might touch upon his own personal life, such as the possibility of being evacuated without his parents (10, 41).

Informal inquiries by the reviewers indicate that since 1941 the war has increasingly been brought home to children as more and more relatives or acquaintances have gone into the armed forces. Moreover, the extent to which children report that they have been troubled will be influenced to some degree by the recency of striking events. In the study by Gastwirth and Silverblatt (41), the responses of 27 in a group of 29 sixth-grade children indicated that the children had experienced fear, sadness, or dislike when witnessing movies of bombings. Twenty-four of the 29 children who had experienced a false air raid alarm early in the war stated that they had worried concerning their own safety or the safety of their families. The children also were disturbed when the first practice air raid alert occurred in school, and all 29 reported that they felt an easing of tension when they discovered it was only a drill. Many of these reactions apparently were temporary and episodic in nature, but it appears that none of the children had been spared from at least temporary emotional reactions to the war.

Ideas concerning Participation in War Effort. Children's ideas as to how they might participate in the war effort have been touched upon in various investigations. Unquantified observations on this subject relating to the war of 1914-1918 have been reported by Kimmins (71) and by Ping Ling (79). In the Boy Scout study (123) referred to above, conducted in 1942, it was found that half of the boys of Scout age did not know about 4 war activities which have been labeled as jobs for boys (plane spotting, assistant fire watcher, first aid assistant, messenger). A large proportion of boys (over 60% of children aged 9-11, 12-14, and 15 or over) indicated that they would like to have "more important jobs" to do. Findings in a study of questions raised by high school pupils early in 1942 likewise indicate that many children of adolescent or near adolescent age have felt that they were not being asked to contribute as effectively as they might (24).

EVACUATION

Findings with regard to the response of children to evacuation are of interest not only by virtue of their bearing upon wartime

policies but also by virtue of the light they throw upon behavior tendencies that operate also in times of peace.

A brief item regarding evacuation in Germany has been reported by Ansbacher (5). Although large-scale provisions for evacuated children have also been made in Russia, and no doubt in other belligerent countries, little in the nature of systematic reports from countries other than Britain has been found.

In England the first major evacuation involved approximately one and a half million persons (92, 141), including school children, mothers and their young children, and various other smaller groups. When the expected bombings did not materialize, large numbers began to return home (92). Large numbers did not participate in the first major evacuation (32). The extent of re-evacuation when violent bombings actually began has not been reported precisely. In any event, the number of children who have, at least temporarily, vacated their own homes reaches an enormous total.

Pronouncements and General Aspects of Evacuation. Some writers voice the opinion that the immediate effects of evacuation, when it involves separation from parents, is worse than the immediate effect of air raids, and that it is a greater shock to a child to be separated from his parents than to experience a bombardment (17, 40). Again, it has been asserted that even under the best conditions the break-up of the family makes for loss of emotional security (58). It has also been maintained that symptoms arising from the effect of bombing usually disappear quickly, while those associated with separation from the home are more persistent (139). As against these views there is the contention that evacuation to a safe area is preferable to having the child exposed even to a relatively "harmless" raid (87) and, more important, the findings in several studies (reviewed below) to the effect that most children seem, at least outwardly, to be able to make a good adjustment to evacuation and that increases in delinquency and nervous disorders have been considerably smaller than many had anticipated (18). Available evidence does not warrant sweeping generalizations concerning the comparative ill effects of bombing and evacuation.

By reason of differences in technique and the different age groups involved in different studies, no over-all summary statement of the percentage of good or unfavorable adjustment at various age levels can be given. In the most elaborate study of

evacuated children, consisting mainly of children of school age or older (62), 8.2% of the children were rated as unhappily adjusted in their new homes. Burt (19) mentions a report to the effect that 94% of a group of 275 children evacuated from Liverpool were "very happy," and states that this tallies with his own impressions, but notes that these observations are subject to certain reservations. Several studies give a higher estimate of poor adjustment.

Whatever the estimate may be, it is subject to various reservations. First, the most systematic studies deal with children who have been evacuated for some time and do not provide complete information concerning the initial reactions of the youngsters, or of the status of the children who previously had returned home, or of the children who for one reason or another were kept at home from the start. Second, of necessity the studies deal mainly with the relatively short-term effects and not with the question as to what long-term benefit or harm the children may have sustained. Procedures used in arriving at a rating of adjustment have differed and so also, undoubtedly, have standards as to what constitutes satisfactory adjustment. Rating schemes have not as a rule been described in such detail that an independent worker could apply them in a study of his own. Some generalizations have no doubt been influenced by the observer's peacetime preconceptions.

Among the factors that have been noted by various writers (18, 57, 62, 97, 112, 139) as rendering evacuation more trying than an ordinary departure from home to a camp or boarding school are the following: evacuation takes place in a general atmosphere of uncertainty and sometimes danger; it is likely to be for an indeterminate period of time; while the child is adjusting to a new situation he also is subject to uncertainties concerning the safety and welfare of those remaining at home; younger children who are evacuated in the company of their mothers may indirectly be subject to the difficulties experienced by the mothers; there may be dislocation by reason of differences between the home and billet in wealth, education, and mores. Older children in some instances may, according to some accounts, feel a certain amount of self-disparagement about having forsaken the folks back home.

According to several studies (10, 18, 19, 29, 41, 62, 112), the response of children and parents to the prospect or actuality of evacuation has manifested the strength of family ties—the importance to the child of his parents and his home, even if the

economic circumstances of the home and the normal relationships between the child and his family are not ideal, and similarly, the importance to parents, notably the mothers, of their children. While many children returned home because of difficulties of adjustment in the foster home, it has also been observed that many children were brought home largely because their own parents were unhappy without them. Teachers who have been evacuated with their pupils to Cambridge (62) expressed opinions to the effect that the family unit was so essential a part of English life that evacuation should be avoided if possible, and that homes and schools should be provided with safe shelters; since this would be difficult to accomplish, evacuation should continue, according to these teachers, but authorities should plan farther ahead and institute a policy of decentralization on a permanent basis.

General Adjustment at Various Age Levels. Findings with regard to the response to evacuation at various age levels are rather conflicting. Burt (18) reaches the generalization that children under 8 years and over 12 years seem to have been most openly affected, but this is not confirmed by all studies. Difficulties of adjustment were more pronounced at the age of 13 and thereafter than at earlier age levels in one of the two groups of children included in the Cambridge Survey (62) but this finding was not supported by the other group. In this comprehensive study, information was obtained from foster homes, from teachers, from essays written by the children themselves, from clinics and from parents of children who had returned home.

Reports of a study by Alcock (139, 140) give the age distribution of 420 cases referred to a clinic during a period of 16 months at an evacuation center, but the total number of evacuees at various age levels is not reported, so it is not possible to compute comparative percentages.

One hundred evacuated children ranging in age from 6 months to 4 years and 11 months, were studied by John (65). Information was obtained from the mother or the householder where the children were billeted, from the billeting officer or assistant, and from study of each individual child. It is reported that children from birth to 2 years seemed to suffer least. They were less acutely aware of the change. Older children in the preschool range seemed to suffer most. Excessive dependence on the mother, according to such information as could be obtained, appeared in 21% of the cases before evacuation and in 44% after evacuation. Of the 100 children in the study, 56 settled down satisfactorily and 44 did

not. This represents a larger proportion of unsatisfactory adjustment than has been reported in several other studies. It is not clear to what extent this difference may be attributed to the age of the children or to other factors.

Vernon (112) reports a study dealing with 186 adolescent girls, but no over-all rating of satisfactoriness of adjustment is given.

In the Davidson and Slade study (29) of 56 boys and 44 girls aged 11-14, information was obtained by means of interviews with the children themselves, with the children's own parents with two or more teachers, with foster parents, and, where possible, with other members of the household in the foster home. The findings in this study do not agree with the conclusion in the Cambridge Survey to the effect that there is a sharp rise in the incidence of unsatisfactory adjustment around the age of 13. Seventy of the 100 children were rated satisfactory in their adjustments (reasonably happy, and foster parents were pleased or at least willing to continue to keep them); 13 were rated as doubtful, and 17 were rated as having made an unsatisfactory adjustment to the foster homes. Seven of these 17, it is reported, had qualities that would make it difficult for them to adjust satisfactorily anywhere. Davidson and Slade state that it is likely that the percentage of unsatisfactory cases would be higher if the investigation had been made earlier.

Some Positive Effects. In a study by Boyd (15), teachers utilized a rating scheme to give their judgments as to changes that had occurred in the behavior of 70 10-14 year old children who had been or still were evacuated, as compared with 46 children who had stayed at home, more or less without benefit of regular schooling. Before definite conclusions can be drawn from the data, it would be necessary to have more precise information concerning the procedures and to obviate certain other reservations mentioned by Boyd. At any rate, it is interesting to note that, according to the judgment of the teachers, "on the whole, evacuation in the case of children who have stayed away long enough to be affected by it, has brought about an appreciable improvement in socially desirable conduct and a firming up of personal character, but that apart from a slight increase in timorousness, it has left unaffected the emotional life of children." A "slight increase in timorousness" suggests that possibly the improvement reported by the teachers was more in the nature of outward conformity than inner peace, but this must remain an open question.

Vernon (112) also reports that while many children respond

unfavorably to evacuation, some respond to the challenge of being thrown upon their own resources with greater independence and initiative and a bolder attitude toward life. Similar testimony is given by Adam (1) without a report of quantitative findings.

Burt (19) notes that although a considerable increase in the amount of "mild" and probably temporary nervous disturbances appears to have followed evacuation, such factors as removal from undesirable homes, improved physical health, and possibly the freer outlets afforded by rural life seemed to have resulted in a definite improvement in many children who previously had exhibited mild or serious disorders. Henshaw (57) comments that in a few cases children unwanted in their own homes have found happiness in foster homes. Vernon (112) found that while many adolescents missed the old friends and activities, some had learned to appreciate new friends and new leisure occupations.

In the Cambridge study (62), responses to a questionnaire by teachers who had been evacuated with their pupils showed "a substantial degree of agreement" in reporting that evacuation had brought about improvement in the health of children, in the children's personal appearance, in relationships between the children and their teachers, in relations among the children themselves, in self-reliance, and a broadening of children's interests and outlooks. The results of the questionnaire are not presented quantitatively, so the relative weight of these items of testimony cannot be gauged. The teachers alluded to above also reported various unfavorable effects.

Homesickness. One of the most commonly reported reactions of evacuated children is homesickness, embracing a large variety of longings for old associations, including "mother-sickness" (19), a yearning for the company of mother or father or both, a desire for a return to the old mode of life, or a hankering for specific features of the former surroundings. Burt (19) reports that when homesickness occurred, it usually came immediately in the case of the younger children, but only after a period of incubation in the older, after the novelty of the holiday trip to the country had worn off and after some of the restrictions in the new environment became boring or irksome.

In the Cambridge Survey (62), parents and relatives were mentioned most often both by boys and by girls when children responded to the topic, "What I Miss in Cambridge." As against this, foster parents were mentioned 54 times by girls and 37 times

by boys when they discussed what they "liked" in Cambridge. Second on both the boys' and the girls' list of things missed in Cambridge are "friends not evacuated."

Relations with Own Parents. Vernon (112) found that 75% of the girls who had returned home reported that their parents wanted them to come home. It is not unlikely that a homesick child might attribute his desire to go home to the desires of his parents for his homecoming. Moreover, a child's wish to return home may strengthen a parent's wish to have him back. But certainly it can be said that the studies of evacuated children emphasize not only that children "need" their parents but also that parents "need" their children. In general discussions of parent-child relationships, the former point frequently is emphasized to the exclusion of the latter.

As has been noted by other observers, Vernon reports that many children were unsettled by parental appeals for sympathy and loyalty. Against this, it should also be said that expressions of parental solicitude and affection may have a favorable effect (62) and, undoubtedly, in many cases appeals for sympathy, however disturbing they may be, would not cause as much distress as would absence of any kind of evidence of concern by the parent. Several investigators (62, 89, 97, 108) comment on the subject of communication between parents and evacuated children by way of visits, letters, gifts, and the like. Many observers emphasize the importance to the evacuated child of letters, gifts, and other tokens of affection from home.

In the Cambridge study (62), there was a higher percentage of unsatisfactory adjustment (22%) in the case of youngsters who received no parental visits than in the case of children who were visited less than once monthly (9% unsatisfactorily adjusted), or in the case of children who were visited more than once monthly (15%). Davidson and Slade (29) also found that among children who were frequently visited there was a lower incidence of unsatisfactory adjustment, but the difference fell short of statistical significance. They also point out that parental visits may have both good and disturbing effects. To what extent the factor of absence of visits as such, as distinguished from various factors which might underlie a lack of desire or of ability to visit, makes for the unfavorable showing of non-visited children would require further study.

Adjustment to Changes in School Work and Everyday Activities.

As already noted many difficulties have been encountered by evacuated children in connection with their adjustment to school (19, 62, 97, 112). Difficulties may range from disturbances connected with dislocation of work habits, crowding in the new school, lack of adequate facilities and equipment, differences in academic and disciplinary standards, and the like. In the Cambridge study (62), the "home school" was mentioned 28 times by boys and 33 times by girls in accounts of "What I Miss in Cambridge." As against this, there were, respectively, 48 and 41 mentions of school in accounts of "What I Like in Cambridge." Teachers in this study reported that evacuees showed lowered powers of concentration and decline in rate of progress in school work. Burt (19) points out that the evacuation of teachers and pupils not only presents new problems and new difficulties but also new opportunities.

Another source of difficulty arose in connection with recreation and the use of leisure time (19, 62, 112), lack of customary playmates and facilities, and a considerable degree of boredom in the case of some children. On the other hand, many children commented on increased opportunity for various experiences, including outdoor activities, and upon the formation of new friendships.

Bed-wetting, Uncleanliness, and Other Conditions. Several reports emphasize the high incidence of bed-wetting shown by evacuated children. With the reservation that the percentages must be regarded as preliminary, Burt (19) estimates that incontinence was exhibited by 3.4% of children before evacuation and by 7.2% of a similar sampling of children after evacuation. In writings dealing with the subject, the bed-wetting of evacuees has variously been described as a continuation of habits that prevailed before the war, or as a new symptom arising out of the tensions associated with the experience of being evacuated (19, 43, 57, 62, 139, 140). Both factors seem to have been operating to varying degrees in different children. Again, at least occasional incontinence might arise through circumstances, such as embarrassment about going to the toilet in the new home, fear of getting up in a strange place at night, or unfamiliarity with the layout.

The verminous condition of some evacuees, and disgust in response to lice shown by some workers at billeting centers have been noted by various writers (18, 20, 57, 62, 92). Similar trouble arose in the war of 1914-1918, in connection with the establishment of child welfare and recreation centers (124).

Difficulties of Parents. Parents of evacuated children have been faced with various problems, apart from loneliness and desire for the company of their children (62, 97). Mothers who accompanied their children to evacuation centers frequently were faced with the problem of separation from their own homes and husbands and many practical problems, such as adjustment to a new household. Parents who stayed at home faced problems such as uncertainty as to how long the separation from the home was to last, reluctance to be parted from a child who is growing and changing rapidly, perplexity concerning possible difficulty in adjustment when the child comes back, and the possibility of jealousy or other misgivings in their attitudes toward the foster parents, or resentment at the fact of being under obligation (62).

Parents whose children had returned from the evacuation billets in Cambridge most frequently gave the following reasons for bringing the child home: family ties; dissatisfaction with the foster home or a wish to avoid another change of billet; and financial, including, among other matters, extra expenses that were not adequately covered by billeting allowances.

Problems of Foster Parents. Many of the problems reported by foster parents are of the sort that one might expect when large numbers of families are called upon to provide substitute homes for strange children (18, 19, 29, 57, 62, 97, 109). There is not space here to list the various problems that might arise. Various writers recommend that group care rather than foster home care be provided for children with certain handicaps or characteristics. Among children who require special consideration according to Burt (18) are the physically weak, mentally defective, the dull, educationally backward, the temperamentally unstable, potential neurotics, potential delinquents, and those who suffer or have suffered from incontinence.

As might be expected, there were foster homes that proved to be unsuited for children, even though it appears that a large majority of foster parents strove to do their best. From interviews with parents of 150 children from 131 homes who had returned to London from Cambridge (62), it appeared that about four-fifths of the children who returned during the first 6 months after initial evacuation did not go home mainly because of dissatisfaction with the foster home, but for other reasons. Burt (18) has discussed a number of characteristics that should be taken into account in appraising a prospective foster parent. In one of the two groups

of children studied in the Cambridge Survey (79), there was a higher percentage of unsatisfactory adjustment in homes where the mothers were over 60, but this was not borne out by the other group.

Influence of Background and Other Factors on the Adjustment of Evacuees. Various studies indicate that children who showed a history of poor adjustment prior to the war or prior to evacuation tended to exhibit more unhappiness and maladjustment when evacuated than did children with a favorable past history (17, 29, 62, 65). In an account of a sampling of 46 of the Cambridge evacuees who were rated as unsatisfactorily adjusted to their foster homes (62) and of 40 children rated as satisfactorily adjusted, it appears that the incidence of unsatisfactory adjustment was decidedly higher in the case of children suffering from personality difficulties that did not originate with evacuation, but there also were cases of unsatisfactory adjustment among youngsters who had a favorable history, and some youngsters who had earlier exhibited emotional difficulties managed to adjust satisfactorily in the new situation. The Cambridge investigators conclude that there is every prospect that a child who is normal, friendly, and genial will, in his own good time, adjust well to billeting; that the child who is quiet and withdrawn, whether normal or abnormal, will become a welcome guest; while the child who shows active outgoing, aggressive qualities will tend to remain a problem for foster mothers and billeting authorities.

Findings with regard to the relation of intelligence to adjustment in the new home are inconclusive (62, 65, 112). John (65) found that the brighter children in her preschool group seemed to be more sensitive than the duller ones to the change and all its concomitants.

Effect of Presence of Other Children. Findings vary somewhat on the question as to the effect of the presence of other children in the home on the adjustments of evacuees. In the Cambridge study (62), the per cent of satisfactory adjustment in four combinations including the presence of siblings with or without other resident or evacuated children was higher than in combinations that included no siblings. On the other hand, Davidson and Slade (29) found that children billeted in families with three or more children showed less satisfactory adjustment than children billeted in families with no children. In the Vernon study of adolescent girls (112), satisfactoriness of adjustment bore no significant relationship to the pres-

ence of siblings or local children in the foster home, but there was a higher percentage of unsatisfactory adjustment in homes with 3 or more other children than in homes with only 1 or 2 children or with no other children. On the basis of informal surveys, Burt (19) makes recommendations concerning the placement together of children with various characteristics.

REFUGEE CHILDREN

Wasserman and Resek (114), in a study of refugee children living in the United States, report that a child's experience prior to his expatriation (whether or not he has been exposed to direct persecution, to bombing, or invasion, etc.) may have an important bearing upon his adjustment as a refugee. The adjustments of refugee children may also be complicated by difficulties which their parents meet in adjusting to a new life. They comment also on the remarkable "elasticity of the normal child's mentality enabling him to sever ties with the old and to adopt the new in a manner that adults may regard as lack of loyalty, but which is actually merely the healthy reaction of the young to a new experience." The authors also report that "almost all" refugee children like their American teachers in schools. Plaut (94) discusses the adjustments of refugee children in England.

An interesting supplement to the study of effects of evacuation on children should come when further systematic reports are available concerning the adjustments of refugee children who face a situation which in some ways resembles and in other ways is quite different from the situation confronting an evacuee.

VARIOUS DISLOCATIONS IN FAMILY LIFE AND IN EVERYDAY ACTIVITIES

Numerous reports deal with a variety of practical dislocations of everyday life entailed by the war (4, 14, 23, 34, 46, 47, 61, 77, 83, 84, 88, 93, 97, 100, 103, 106, 110, 113) including those arising in the home by virtue of the absence of the father or outside employment of the mother, or by reason of migration, congestion of population, and the like. According to various informal sources of information, it appears that the care of children whose mothers are working constitutes a serious problem in many sections of the country.

Parental fatigue and overwork may present complications. In a report on health conditions in England, Hill (60) alludes to a

Gallup survey (original report not seen by reviewers), according to which the proportion of people who said they slept more than 8 hours a night fell from 48% to 18% between April, 1939, and January, 1941. Rationing, food shortages, and various inconveniences undoubtedly in many instances have caused adult impatience with consequent effects on children. Of incidental interests here is a comment on the shortness of temper exhibited by German adults after two years of war (99). Blackouts and dimouts entail many obvious inconveniences and also certain dangers, such as an increase in road accidents (111). Stott (106) in a study of Nebraska farm families found that two-thirds of the farm women did "chores usually done by men and boys" as compared with a little over half the women in the prewar year. The reported average amount of time spent by mothers on outside chores was 1.63 hours per day in 1942 as compared with an average of 1.09 in 1941. Reports from 457 farm youths in the age range from 13 to 22 years indicate that there was an increase in parental worry and nervousness in 1942 compared with 1941, a decline in irritability and conflict in the family, a slight increase in "good times at home" and a sharp decrease in "family recreation outside the home."

Among other problems are those arising through shortages of well-trained teachers in some areas; and the assignment of teachers to subjects in which they are not fully competent. The assignment of many teachers to responsibilities connected with care of children during non-school hours presents both problems and opportunities.

RESPONSES TO ALARMS, AIR RAIDS, BOMBING AND OTHER VIOLENT IMPACTS OF WAR

In appraising reported findings on the effects of bombing and air raids, it is important to note whether the investigator is giving an overall view of the reactions of children in general, or is discussing the behavior of a select group of children, or is describing in detail the sufferings of children who have been seriously affected. It is important also, as Glover (46) stresses, to take account of the situation that confronted the individual at the time of the raid. In a heavily bombed city or countryside, all inhabitants will have had experience with the physical realities of air attack, but these realities will vary in the case of different individuals. The effects of raids may vary also in different popula-

tions, and at different periods within the same area in relation to factors such as war fatigue, hunger, reports of casualties, optimism or pessimism concerning the larger outcome of the war.

The effects of the explosion of a bomb in near proximity have been described by several writers, primarily on the basis of observations of the reaction of adults (3, 25, 34, 46, 50, 54). The immediate reaction in extreme cases may range from a coma-like daze to confusion, and delayed reactions may involve symptoms such as hyperactivity and agitation, or sluggishness, depression, difficulty in initiating voluntary activity, etc.

In many cases the impact of bombs and the fear of death are less disturbing than the darkness, dust, blood, and glass, the loss of moorings, the dislocation of everyday affairs, the tremendous inconvenience wrought by destructive raids, and the effects of loss of sleep and of extreme fatigue (50). Glover (46) also notes that in heavily raided areas a frequent response is anger, directed at local or central authorities more than at the enemy.

One source of strain, at least in adults, is anticipation of bombing, coupled with fear of the unknown and unpredictable, which may be more trying than the actual attack (113). It has been observed that habituation or acclimatization operates strongly, at least in the case of adults (113). This was also noted in the war of 1914-1918 (119, 120). There is a question as to whether apparent habituation represents greater imperviousness to fear or greater capacity for maintaining an appearance of calm.

Large-scale surveys, of a more or less systematic nature, of the reaction of the population in "blitzed" areas, indicate that in the case of children and adults the psychological effects of air raids have not been as severe as anticipated. Although observers do not agree with respect to the incidence of marked emotional disturbances, most of them agree that only a small per cent of physically unhurt children have shown notable overt after-effects. On the other hand, studies also reveal that there are children who have been seriously disturbed and, although these may constitute a small percentage, they still, in the aggregate, represent suffering on a large scale. Moreover, some writers are of the opinion that many children have suffered in ways that do not appear on the surface and that are not recognized by parents and teachers, or have sustained shocks that may lead to neurotic behavior at a future time.

On the basis of reports from psychologists and doctors in

Great Britain, many of whom were located in areas that had been raided, Vernon (113), in an article devoted mainly to adult reactions, comments with respect to children that "all observers seem to agree that the raids had even less effect on children than upon adults." Moreover, he states that the novelty and social activity of shelter life appealed to many children, at least for a time. Even when bombed out of their homes, children have frequently been found playing happily the next day. Kimmins (72) reports impressions gained from children's essays written after air raids in the war of 1914-1918. In several other reports from the war of 1914-1918, observers make the point that children as well as adults showed a considerable degree of calmness, or adjusted quickly to the raids, or made efforts not to betray fears that might prevail (119, 120, 129). On the other hand, one observer (74) notes that Zeppelin raids on London had a decidedly disturbing effect on a group of crippled children, and the removal of children from raided areas was recommended by some writers (74, 125).

It is interesting to note that in the writings dealing with response to bombing in the war of 1914-1918, there seems to be more implicit approval or admiration of absence of cowardice and of efforts to make a brave front than in the contemporary literature. In the latter, writers seem to be relatively more concerned about inner tensions, whether or not they are displayed overtly.

Henshaw and Howarth (58), in reporting a number of impressions gained through observation and study of children who had been subjected to bombing in various localities, indicate that the proportion of children who show overt fear of raids, or manifest obvious after-effects, is small compared with the total number of children who have been exposed; but while the number of cases that are seriously affected may not be large, many of these cases are not being recognized. The view that many adult disorders have been unrecognized has been voiced by several writers (25, 34, 46, 54, 75, 91), who urge caution in interpreting statistics from mental hospitals which indicate that the number of new admissions attributable to the war has been quite small (6, 12, 52, 56, 93).

In a report of observations concerning the effects of air raids during the Spanish Civil War, Mira (85) states that the raids did less damage than was popularly believed, and that the effects of bombing were less severe than the effects of slow starvation. Mira reports that on the whole children were more tranquil than the adults during air raids. This report gives a more optimistic

picture than an earlier account by Langdon-Davies (76) of behavior which he had observed during raids on Barcelona.

In a survey of 8000 Bristol school children following heavy raids in that city, Dunsdon (34) found that 300, or about 4%, of the 8000 children who were in the city at the time of bombings showed signs of strain; 120 of these showed psychological symptoms such as nervousness, trembling, aggressiveness, and crying. These symptoms appeared more frequently among children aged 5 to 7 years than among children 11 years or older; the latter tended more frequently to show psychosomatic symptoms such as headaches, indigestion, pallor, anorexia, nosebleeding, and incontinence.

Some observers have noted children tend to have difficulty in concentrating during periods immediately following an air attack, and that many children tend to exhibit tensions through signs such as boisterousness, loud talk, restlessness, or a disposition to argue more than usual (12, 16, 34, 58, 132, 139).

A young child may be quite affected by the intense emotional reactions exhibited by his elders (65). It has also been noted, however, that children near or at the teen age may be challenged by the emotional distress shown by a parent or other adult and seek to give help or reassurance (72).

In the present war, there are several reports of severe psychological disturbances exhibited by children, especially in heavily raided areas. Acute symptoms of distress have been described in a review of Woltman (16) of observations reported by Brander, and in a report, (not seen by the present writers) by Birk (11).

In a study of preschool children who had been in bombed areas before their evacuation, John (65) noted after-effects in some youngsters six months after the bombing. Sixteen of the children who had experienced air raids showed "abnormal" fear of noises before the raid and before evacuation, as compared with 42 showing such fears after the raids; there was a rise from 16 to 26 in the number of cases that showed fear of the dark before and after the raids. These results perhaps are influenced not only by the raid itself, but also the subsequent evacuation.

John noted that after-effects bore a higher relationship to the amount of fear shown at the time of the raid than to the severity of the raid itself, and the degree of fear manifested by the child seemed in many instances influenced by the degree of fear shown by the child's mother. On the basis of computations which are

not fully described, John reports a correlation of .59 between mothers' and children's fears at the time of the raid. Solomon (101), in an account of the reactions of San Francisco children to an air raid alarm soon after the attack on Pearl Harbor also noted that a prominent feature in the reaction of children was the contagion of anxiety from adults.

Bodman (12) reports a study of children aged 2 months to 12 years who several months earlier had been subjected to a terrifying air raid experience while they were patients in a hospital. Of the 54 children in the bombed group, 51 were traced; of these, 44 were alive, the others having died of various illnesses. Five of the youngsters, or 11%, still showed symptoms attributable to the experience and, according to the parents, 27, or 61%, of the children had shown distress during periods ranging from one or two weeks to two months after their return home from the hospital—manifesting symptoms such as sweating when the siren sounded, or showing fright. Bodman describes the subsequent reactions of children at various age levels.

Mons (87) asserts that "even a single 'harmless' air raid can do great damage to a child's psyche, be he ever so 'normal' and 'fearless' on the surface," and that children may be subject to disturbing after-effects which parents and teachers fail to see. Mons (87) and Alcock (2) report that Rorschach responses of children who have been bombed reveal disturbances in "deeper layers of personality" to a greater extent than the responses of unbombed children.

There are recurrent observations to the effect that those who show pronounced disturbances precipitated by the war, whether they be children or adults and whether the reaction be in response primarily to bombing or evacuation or other events, are in a large proportion of cases persons who had an earlier history of psychological or behavior disorder (37, 49, 56, 57). The generalization thereby implied seems to be reasonable enough, yet it does not mean, of course, that all children who have a history of emotional difficulty will succumb to wartime stresses or that all children who have a favorable history will be immune to an especially trying ordeal. Adequately to establish the relation of wartime emotional disorders to prewar personal maladjustments would require more systematic study by the control-group procedure.

In several writings, dealing largely with adults, appear statements to the effect that the effort to keep a brave front and to maintain self-control over internal thoughts and feelings evoked

by the presence or anticipation of danger may aggravate the stress that is endured. According to Rickman (96) this effort may even eventually have as much of an unnerving effect as the dread of danger itself. Wilson (116) maintains that admission and acceptance of fear is a safeguard against breakdown.

Such pronouncements take on added interest in connection with the problem of children's anxieties and fears as affected by the behavior of adults: it would seem that exhibition of fear by an adult may have an unfortunate effect on children, while an adult's readiness quietly to admit and accept his fear might still have value for him.

Various writers have commented on the bracing effect of having a job to do (44, 46, 50, 69, 113). Vernon's correspondents indicate that, among other matters, lecturing to a class of students may be helpful, at least to the lecturer. While these observations deal with adults, they also seem pertinent as regards children. As mentioned in an earlier section, children themselves have expressed a desire for more constructive participation in the war effort.

DELINQUENCY

A report issued by the British Information Services (135) shows an increase of about 33% in the number of children aged 8-16 who were charged with indictable offenses during the first 12 months of the war, as compared with the previous 12 months of peace. The second 12-month period showed an increase of 52%, and the 4-month period from September through December, 1941, an increase of 38% over the corresponding peacetime periods.*

The percentage of increase is more arresting when computed in terms of the delinquent population, as above, than when computed on the basis of the total child population (as of 1938). In the age range from 14 to 16 years, for example (the range showing the highest rate), there was a rise in the rate of indictable offenses from 11 per thousand boys in the last year of peace to 16 per thousand in the second year of war. In the case of girls, there was a rise from .8 to 1.9 indictable offenses per thousand of girls during the same period. Such increases certainly represent a serious matter, yet one might comment that the wonder is not that there has been an increase but that the increase has been so small.

* According to a press report appearing after this article was prepared, there was a decline in delinquency in England in 1942 as compared with 1940-41 (*New York Herald-Tribune*, Aug. 22, 1943).

Statistics with regard to the nature of the illegal acts that were committed indicate that many of the offenses could hardly be considered serious acts of delinquency in the usual meaning of that term, at least under peacetime conditions.

From many quarters come reports of an increase in delinquency in this country since the outbreak of the war (47, 128). The materials are not such that they can be summarized in a single, all-over statistic.

A report issued by the New York State Department of Social Welfare (131) on December 2, 1942, indicates that in 13 "war-industry counties" delinquency cases disposed of by children's courts increased 11.5% in the first 6 months of 1941, and 22.4% in the first 6 months of 1942, over the average for the first 6 months of 1938-1940. On the other hand, in 39 counties not classified as war-industry areas, there was only a slight increase of .8% in 1941 and a decrease of 2.2% in 1942.

There were many more or less obvious factors that have been mentioned as contributory to juvenile delinquency during war, in addition to the many complex factors that contribute to delinquency in times of peace (13, 34, 51, 82, 90, 127, 128).

VITAL STATISTICS, HEALTH, EFFECTS OF MALNUTRITION

Birth Rate and Infant Mortality. A declining trend in infant mortality rates in many countries for several decades prior to 1914 (103, 115, 137) was interrupted or reversed in several European countries during the war of 1914-1918 (102, 115). The decline was resumed thereafter, and then, according to provisional statistics, again was interrupted or reversed in some countries, but not in all, during the first two years of the present war (111, 127). The declining birth rate trend prior to the war of 1914-1918 was accelerated in belligerent countries during the war years (78, 137). There was a rise in the birth rate following the armistice, but by 1920-1922, the downward trend had been resumed again (137). Birth rates during the first full year of the present war have shown a decline in several countries, but the statistics are not definitive.

From various sections of the United States come reports of a recent increase in the birth rate. Provisional data indicate that the birth rate in New York State in 1941 and in the first 9 months of 1942 was higher than the average from 1936 through 1940. The sharpest gains on the basis of reports at hand (through October, 1942) occurred during September and October, or 9 and 10 months after Pearl Harbor (130). Undoubtedly many factors, in-

cluding an increased marriage rate, have contributed to these short-term trends so far reported. During the early period of the war of 1914-1918 there was a "sudden and phenomenal rise" in the number of marriages in England (138), followed by a decline to below the average marriage rate on the third quarter of the second full year of war. Trends in marriages and birth rates during the present and the last war have been discussed by Bossard (14) and Stocks (104).

Child Welfare Activities. The attention which war focusses upon birth and infant mortality rates is part of a larger picture of accelerated or augmented interest in social welfare which was noticeable in some countries in the last war and is conspicuous also in the present war. Indeed, by reason of steps taken to protect and safeguard the civilian population, a condition of warfare, short of devastating bombing or invasion, may, at least for a time, result in improvement of health and nutrition in certain areas. Among the child care facilities that have been provided or have been augmented are nursery schools, day nurseries, maternal health centers, play centers, camps and hostels, machinery for instruction in nutrition, health, and other aspects of child welfare, and machinery for providing supplementary feeding, free lunches, and the like (21, 30, 31, 63, 70, 118, 124, 126, 133, 136).

Health, Nutrition, Physical Impairment. It will not be possible until after hostilities are over to make anything approaching a systematic appraisal of the extent to which the child population, especially in invaded or occupied areas, has suffered from malnutrition and disease, or to appraise the long-term after-effects of wartime deprivations.

Reports from England indicate that while gains in public health provisions have rendered the British population better equipped this time than in 1914 to stand the physical strains of war (59, 60), the child population is not fully immune to the stresses of wartime, as indicated in reports that in various localities there has been an increase in the incidence of tuberculosis (27, 81, 105) since the beginning of the present war and that school children in some areas have shown signs of malnutrition (28, 80).

Reports concerning conditions in Germany following the war of 1914-1918 (36, 55, 67) indicate that children in many localities were markedly underweight and also failed to make normal gains in height. Other evidences of malnutrition included considerable tooth decay, prevalence of rickets, skin disorders, and other conditions associated with undernourishment. Undoubtedly there

were areas in the last war (such as in Serbia) in which children suffered even greater hardships.

Some Psychological Effects of Malnutrition. According to several writers, one conspicuous effect of malnutrition on behavior appears in the form of apathy and listlessness (38, 39, 55, 121, 122). Children have been described as showing lack of energy for play, a lack of gaiety, difficulty in concentrating on school work and loss of memory of what has recently been learned. Disturbances due to lack of food are mentioned as being especially noticeable in malnourished adolescents. One observer stresses the difficulty that adults may experience in making decisions in everyday affairs. The reviewers have not located any systematic study which shows the range and incidence of various symptoms such as the foregoing in relation to malnutrition of varying degrees and duration. In some reports that deal at length with physical symptoms, psychological reactions are mentioned only in passing, if at all. One writer (55) reports that children who showed symptoms such as those described above rapidly became cheerful and strong when they received proper nourishment, but there seems to be no systematic study of the rate and course of psychological recovery and of possible unfavorable after-effects.

Interesting to students of child development is the question as to what, if anything, is the effect on the child of being born to a mother who, in spite of special provisions for pregnant women, is physically less robust by reason of wartime deprivations, complicated by emotional disturbance occasioned by the absence of the husband, and the dangers and uncertainties of the times. A report from Germany following the war of 1914-1918 (36) sets forth that less than 50% of the mothers in some areas were able to nurse their babies, and that most of the mothers who could nurse had a reduced supply of milk and were unable to continue beyond a few weeks. If there is anything to the theory that the experience of nursing has psychological values beyond food-getting, and that the mental state of the mother may have profound effects on the infant, one might conjecture that the basis of later neuroses was being established in many children. The reviewers have found no systematic follow-up studies bearing on this and related problems.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

As has been suggested above, the literature concerning the impact of war on children contains a decidedly larger volume of pronouncements than of reports of systematic, scientific data. In

some writings, it seems that the authors have used the occasion mainly to reiterate peace-time theories. Moreover, authoritative information from many of the sections of the globe that have felt the war more severely than England is quite limited.

There is a lack of comprehensive evidence not only concerning the immediate psychological and physical effects of war at its worst, but also, unavoidably, concerning residual effects in the form of physical impairment, neurosis, and fears and hatreds that might have an influence on attitudes and behavior in future years. Future research will perhaps also give more systematic information concerning the extent to which children at various levels of maturity can participate in efforts such as those which a war entails, and the effect of such participation on children themselves. A further interesting subject for inquiry is the influence that happenings such as large-scale migrations of people, the opportunity for rural and urban populations of varying cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds to rub elbows with one another, and the establishment of extensive public facilities for the everyday care of children might have on education and child welfare arrangements in the future.

Although observers disagree in their estimates of the effects of bombing, evacuation and other impacts of war, the major finding that seems to emerge from England at this juncture, both from several systematic studies and from the testimony of historical events, is that the child population has been able to face the strains of total war with a great degree of emotional hardihood and adaptability. The youngsters who have clearly shown marked or persisting emotional disorders, or neurotic or delinquent behavior represent a relatively small proportion of the child population. However, the testimony of events and limited findings from other quarters indicate that all civilian populations have not uniformly been able to "take it" as well as did the people of Great Britain when that country stood on what seemed to be the brink of disaster after the fall of France. Apparently, in addition to the factor of the severity of the physical ordeals that may be involved, there are many unexplored psychological factors, some of which we now lump loosely under the general heading of "morale," that have played an important role.

The findings that so far have accumulated support or supplement generalizations that have emerged from many peace-time studies, including studies of the development of children's concepts and attitudes; the bearing of physical well-being upon psy-

chological stamina; the importance of family ties not only in relationships between parents and children but also in relationships between brothers and sisters; the influence of parental emotional reactions on the reactions of children; the bearing of the adequacy or inadequacy of past adjustments upon the ability to adjust to new or trying situations, with the reservation that a new ordeal may reveal previously unsuspected weaknesses or prove to be so severe as to overwhelm a person who hitherto had a favorable history.

It can hardly be said that studies that have been completed to date have produced new light in which to study children or in which to interpret what we already know about them. To change the figure, the new wine has been collected in the old bottles of psychological theory. This perhaps is inevitable since war between nations involves a continuation of conflicting forces that operate in human behavior during times of diplomatic peace. It is possible, however, that as research findings accumulate, new insights might emerge concerning children's limits of endurance and capacity for recuperation, the physical and psychological influences in the environment which strengthen their fortitude or facilitate their collapse, and the possibility of mobilizing, for peaceful purposes, potentialities for the development of emotional attachment to values and positive ideals which, on critical occasions in the present war, have proved to be stronger than the forces of anger or cupidity, and more powerful than fear.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTEENTH ANNUAL
MEETING OF THE EASTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL
ASSOCIATION

THEODORA M. ABEL, SECRETARY, LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

The Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association was held at Hunter College, New York City, on April 30th and May 1st, 1943, under the auspices of the Department of Psychology and Philosophy of Hunter College. During the winter the officers of the Association made careful inquiry of the Office of Defense Transportation and decided that holding of the meetings was in accordance with the directives of that office. In order, however, to avoid any radical departure from the policy established by the Office of Defense Transportation as regards long distance traveling, the officers of the Association deemed it advisable to ask members living more than one hundred miles from New York City to absent themselves from the meetings unless: they were officers of the Association, they were presenting papers and participating in round tables; they had immediate interest in those portions of the program dealing with war problems; or they were coming to New York on some war business, anyway, at the time of the meetings. In spite of the restriction, attendance at the meeting was 420; 193 members, 28 applicants for membership in 1944, and 199 guests.

The exigencies of the present war situation made the work of the Program Committee somewhat more hurried and less thorough than is sometimes possible, especially as final decision to hold the meeting was not made until the middle of February. A program of thirty-six papers, three round tables, and three films was made up from the abstracts submitted; and a special panel discussion on Psychology and the War was borrowed intact from the program for the canceled meeting of the American Psychological Association. Several expected participants in this program were absent due to pressing war duties but a sufficient number did present reports to justify devoting the whole Saturday morning program to them. These panels gave members and guests of the Association an excellent opportunity for obtaining first-hand information about actual work being done by psychologists either on committees of the National Research Council, in government agencies or in the armed forces. It was of particular interest to find out that psychologists working with the armed forces not

only study methods of selection but are definitely contributing to the training program as well. In order to interfere as little as possible with week-end transportation facilities, no general session for Saturday afternoon was scheduled.

No presidential dinner was given this year. At an evening session Friday, Gardner Murphy introduced President George N. Shuster of Hunter College, who welcomed the Association to the College, and Gordon W. Allport, president of the Association, who spoke on "The Ego in Contemporary Psychology." The President classified and reviewed various definitions of the ego as employed by psychologists since psychology came into "its own" as a science. He gave evidence pointing to the fruitfulness of making use of the ego concept in explaining and interpreting of data obtained from experimental and empirical procedures in various fields of psychology. The speech was concluded by the prediction that "ego-psychology in the Twentieth Century will flourish increasingly. For only with its aid can psychologists reconcile the human nature that they study and the human nature that they serve."

Elections and Appointments: Officers were elected to serve as follows: *President*, 1943-44, Edna Heidebreder, Wellesley College; *Secretary*, 1943-46, Theodora M. Abel, Letchworth Village; *Directors*, 1943-46, Gordon W. Allport, Harvard University, and Henry E. Garrett, Columbia University; *Director*, 1943-44, to fill the unexpired term of Edna Heidebreder, Donald G. Marquis, Yale University. The Board of Directors appointed as members of the Program Committee, Edward Girden, Brooklyn College, 1943-46, and J. McV. Hunt, Brown University, 1943-44, to fill the unexpired term of J. J. Gibson resigned; as representative on the Council of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1943-45, Harry Helson, The Foxboro Company; and as the Auditing Committee, Bernard F. Riess and Livingston Welch, Hunter College.

The following actions were taken at the annual business meeting:

- (1) Proceedings of the 1942 Meeting as printed in the *Psychological Bulletin* were accepted.
- (2) The reports of the Secretary and of the Treasurer were accepted and a budget totalling \$695.00 was adopted for the year 1943-44.
- (3) Fifty-eight applicants for membership were taken into the Association on recommendation of the Board of Directors.
- (4) It was voted to reconstitute the Clearing House of Information relative to job placement with the Secretary as chairman and with three

other members geographically distributed to be appointed by the incoming President to cooperate with the Office of Psychological Personnel or give placement service as seems best in their judgment.

(5) The invitation of President Marsh and the Department of Psychology of Boston University for the Association to hold its annual meeting in 1944, at that institution was accepted with thanks but was made subject to the rules and conditions that the Office of Defense Transportation might make.

(6) The following resolution presented by Gardner Murphy was unanimously adopted:

Whereas we, members of the Eastern Psychological Association, have confidence in the scientific integrity and professional competence of Goodwin B. Watson, and in the value of his present work as analyst for the Foreign Broadcast Intelligence Service;

And whereas, we regard him as a loyal citizen of the United States and not subversive in either speech or conduct;

And whereas, in our opinion he has been during the past months, wrongly accused and misrepresented by the Dies Committee, and more recently has received an inadequate hearing before the Kerr Committee;

And whereas, we are aware of the danger resulting from this situation for the freedom of other scientists to make their contribution to public welfare as employees of government bureaus;

Be it resolved, that we deplore any political persecution of civil servants, and call upon our Representatives and Senators to see that the American tradition of fair play is upheld, and that Dr. Watson be given a truly adequate hearing, or that the charges against him be dismissed.

Be it further resolved, that this resolution be inscribed in the minutes of the annual meeting of this Association, and that copies be transmitted to the members of the United States Senate, to members of the House Appropriations Committee, and to representatives of the press.

(7) A resolution thanking the Local Committee, President Shuster, and the administrative officers of Hunter College, for their kind hospitality and excellent arrangements made for the meeting of the Association in spite of unexpected emergencies and the handicaps of time and space, was unanimously adopted.

The financial statement for the fiscal year, 1942-43, prepared by the Treasurer and verified by the Auditing Committee is as follows:

FINANCIAL STATEMENT AS OF MAY 1, FOR THE
FISCAL YEAR 1942-1943

	<i>Income</i>
Membership Dues	
Dues for current year (1942-43).....	\$ 434.00
Applicants' fees.....	58.00
Arrears.....	135.00
Advance payments for 1943-44.....	4.00
Guest Fees.....	199.00
Interest on savings account.....	24.78
Total Income.....	\$ 854.78

Expenditures

Publication of 1941-42 <i>Proceedings</i>	\$ 39.20
Office of the Secretary.....	179.75
Office of the Treasurer.....	155.00
Travelling expenses of officers.....	13.52
Program Committee (1941-42).....	35.10
Program Committee (1942-43).....	14.14
Printing, mimeographing.....	88.29
Miscell. stationery, supplies, expenses (Secretary)	27.35
Postage (incl. stamped envelopes).....	54.47
Refund of Dues (excess payment).....	1.00
Bank charges—collecting Money Orders.....	.90
Local expenses, Hunter College meeting.....	74.07
<hr/>	
Total expenditures.....	\$ 682.79
Surplus for 1942-1943.....	\$ 171.99

Balance Sheet

Cash: Fifth Avenue Bank of N. Y.....	\$ 710.34
New York Savings Bank.....	1266.25
Petty Cash: Secretary.....	20.00
Petty Cash: Treasurer.....	20.00
<hr/>	
Total Cash.....	\$2016.59
Capital: As of May 1, 1942.....	\$1844.60
Surplus, 1942-43.....	171.99
<hr/>	
Total Capital.....	\$2016.59

The program of the meeting was as follows:

CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDGAR A. DOLL, Chairman

- On Lefthandedness and Stammering.* ALICE FRIEDMANN, New York City.
A Psychometric Pattern of the Adolescent Psychopathic Personality. JOSEPH LEVI, Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital and New York University.
Tests of Recent Memory in the Measurement of Intellectual Deterioration. S. MEDFORD WESLEY, Yale University.
Ecology of Mental Illness in Eastern Connecticut. RICHARD C. DRAPER, U.S.B.A.E. and FLORIEN HEISER, Norwich State Hospital.
A Comparative Study of Mental Functioning Patterns of Problem and Non-Problem Children Seven, Eight, and Nine Years of Age. MYRTLE LUNEAU PIGNATELLI, Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

JAMES M. O'GORMAN, Chairman

- The Age Factor and Form of Instruction in Search.* HOWARD L. KINGSLEY and HARRIETTE BOWERS ANKENY, Boston University.

Generalization of the Concept of Middleness. VIRGINIA H. GRAHAM, Institute for Research in Child Psychology, Hunter College.

Cooperation in Problem Solving. SAMUEL F. KLUGMAN, University of Pennsylvania.

Some Points of View Preferred by Instructors in Mental Hygiene. NINA RIDENOUR, New York City Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association.

Student Attitude as a Factor in the Mastery of Commercial Arithmetic. ALBERT L. BILLIG, Allentown, Pennsylvania.

The Prediction of Success in an Engineering Curriculum. JAMES M. PORTER, JR., Carnegie Institute of Technology.

LEARNING

LOUIS W. MAX, Chairman

An Experiment on Incidental Memory. MARTIN SCHEERER, College of the City of New York.

The Relative Difficulty of Morse Code Characters Learned by the Whole Method. S. D. S. SPRAGG, Queens College.

An Experimental Comparison of Code-Learning Methods. JOHN P. SEWARD, Connecticut College.

The Effect of Interpolated Activity on Recovery from Experimental Extinction. ALVIN M. LIBERMAN, Yale University.

Effects of Phenobarbital on Learning and Retention. MARSHALL R. JONES, Cornell University Medical College and the New York Hospital, and CAROLYN EWERS JONES, New York City.

The Insulin Effect on Learning in the White Rat. BERNARD F. RIESS, Institute for Research in Child Psychology, Hunter College, and LOUIS BERMAN, New York City.

The Influence of Nutritional Deficiencies during Pre-Natal Life on the Development of Psychological Capacities. GEORGE L. KREEZER, Cornell University.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND MEASUREMENT

HENRY E. GARRETT, Chairman

The Measurement of Judgment. LIEUTENANT FREDERICK B. DAVIS, The Avon School (on leave).

An Instrument for Measuring Attitude Toward Factors Important in Traffic Safety. ELMER B. SIEBRECHT, New York University. (Introduced by B. E. Tomlinson.)

A Binocular Reading Test. GEORGE SPACHE, Friends Seminary, New York City.

A Factorial Study of Achievement in First Semester College German. J. RICHARD WITTENBORN, Yale University, and LIEUTENANT (j.g.) R. P. LARSEN, U.S.N.

The Emergency Use of Wechsler-Bellevue Subtests. ALBERT I. RABIN, New Hampshire State Hospital.

A Comparison of Dexterity Ratings on Usual Dexterity Tests with the Dexterity Ratings Made on a Meaningful Task. MARION STEEL, BENJAMIN BALINSKY, and HAZEL LANG, Vocational Service for Juniors.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

GARDNER MURPHY, Chairman

Attitudes Toward Peace and War in a Sampling of College Men. VERNON JONES, Clark University.

Impact of War on a Nationalistic Frame of Reference. CHARLES E. OSGOOD, Yale University.

On Which Side is History? S. FELDMAN, Cornell University.

The Identification of One's Own Handwriting. STEUART HENDERSON BRITT, Office of Psychological Personnel, National Research Council, and IVAN N. MENSIL.

Understanding versus Suggestion in the Social Field. S. E. ASCH, Brooklyn College.

Different Responses Produced by Good and Poor Art. CATHARINE PATRICK, New York City.

PERSONALITY

PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS, Chairman

A Further Experimental Investigation of Projection. LEOPOLD BELLAK, College of the City of New York, and N. Y. Medical College and Fifth Avenue Hospitals.

Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.) and Rhythmical Quotient (R.Q.), an Experimental Approach to Children's Personality Organization. WERNER WOLFF, Bard College, Columbia University.

Children's Choice of a Different or an Easy Route to a Goal. IRWIN L. CHILD, Yale University.

Adult Leadership as Related to the Bernreuter Personality Measures. NELSON G. HANAWALT and HELEN M. RICHARDSON, New Jersey College for Women.

Mental Decline and Its Retardation. GEORGE LAWTON, New York City.

Two Decades of Centenarians. GRACE E. BIRD, Rhode Island College of Education.

ROUND TABLES

Psychological Analysis of the Authoritarian Character Structure. A. H. MASLOW, Chairman. Participants: RUTH BENEDICT, DAVID M. LEVY, GARDNER MURPHY, MAX WERTHEIMER.

Problems of Diagnosis and Prognosis in the Rorschach Method. BRUNO KLOPFER, Chairman. Participants: A. LOUISE COLLINS, M. R. HARROWER-ERICKSON, MARGARET R. HERTZ, L. G. HIRNING, Z. A. PIOTROWSKI.

Psychological Problems in the Housing of War Workers. J. B. MALLER, Chairman. Participants: A. GOLDFELD, J. ZUBIN, J. SEIDMAN.

FILMS

T. C. SCHNEIRLA, Chairman

The Effect of Infantile Feeding-Frustration on Adult Hoarding in Albino Rats. J. McV. HUNT, H. SCHLOSBERG, R. L. SOLOMON, and E. STELLAR, Brown University.

Some Examples of Hypnotic Regression. PHILIP L. HARRIMAN, Bucknell University.

This Is Robert: A Study of Personality Growth in a Preschool Child. L. JOSEPH STONE, Vassar College.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

The Ego in Contemporary Psychology. GORDON W. ALLPORT, Harvard University.

PANEL DISCUSSIONS

Psychology and the War. Panel I. LEONARD CARMICHAEL, *Chairman*, National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel. *Participants:* W. V. BINGHAM, *chairman*, Advisory Committee, Adjutant General's Office on Classification of Military Personnel; J. W. DUNLAP, *director of research*, Committee on Selection and Training of Aircraft Pilots; LT. COMMANDER J. G. JENKINS, U.S.N.R., Bureau of Aeronautics; R. LIKERT, Head, Division of Program Surveys, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Department of Agriculture; W. R. MILES, Committee on Selection and Training of Aircraft Pilots and Committee on Aviation Medicine, National Research Council; M. S. VITELES, *chairman*, Committee on Selection and Training of Aircraft Pilots; R. S. WOODWORTH, *chairman*, Committee on Child Development.

Psychology and the War. Panel II. W. S. MILES, *Chairman*, Committee on Selection and Training of Aircraft Pilots and Committee on Aviation Medicine, National Research Council, acting as chairman for Major Karl M. Dallenbach. *Participants:* G. W. ALLPORT, *chairman*, Sub-Committee on Defense Seminars; E. G. BORING, *chairman*, Sub-Committee on Textbook of Military Psychology; ALICE I. BRYAN, Sub-Committee on Service of Women Psychologists in the Emergency, acting for Ruth S. Tolman; LEONARD CARMICHAEL, *chairman*, Division of Anthropology and Psychology; EDGAR A. DOLL, *chairman*, Sub-Committee on Problems of Mental Deficiency; C. C. PRATT, *chairman*, Sub-Committee on Psychological Research Projects.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE BAY AREA DIVISIONAL MEETING OF THE WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

RALPH H. GUNDLACH, ACTING SECRETARY-TREASURER,
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON*

The secretary-treasurer of the Western Psychological Association was called to the army in December, 1942, and his predecessor was asked to serve as temporary substitute.

The Executive Committee, after conferring with many members, agreed that there should be no coast-wise meeting of the Association this year. It was also approved that the present officers be retained until such time as a general meeting is held.

At the suggestion of the representatives in Oregon, it was recommended that regional meetings in the Northwest, the Bay Area, and in Southern California be encouraged. The Oregon psychologists urged this since, at the time of planning, there was presumably to be a meeting of the Pacific Division of the A.A.A.S. this spring at Corvallis, in which they wished to take part officially. That meeting was later cancelled. No meeting was held in Los Angeles for lack of interest.

The Bay Area meeting was held at the University of California on Saturday, June 12, 1943. About 50 persons registered for the meetings, a good many of those in attendance representing the armed services.

A special order of business came up with regard to the treatment by Congress of Dr. Goodwin Watson. A resolution in his support, urging that he be given a fair hearing, was passed.

Professor Calvin P. Stone summarized for the assembly those phases of the Intersociety Convention held in New York on May 28-31 which were not confidential.

The officers of the Association, elected last year and now continued in office, are: *President*, Jean Walker Macfarlane, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California; *Vice-President*, William Griffith, Reed College; *Secretary-Treasurer*, for a three year term, Lester F. Beck, University of Oregon.

* On leave and instructing at the University of California.

PROGRAM

Saturday Morning, June 12

ROGER G. BARKER, Chairman

Weight Illusions Induced by Cues of Low Probability. MAX LEVIN, University of California.

Extending a previous study by Brunswik, an inconsistent association ($r .33$) between position (right-left) and weight was found to induce a weight expectancy illusion. Presentation sequences consisted of relatively frequent, positive instances (200 vs. 50 grams) randomly interspersed with relatively infrequent, negative instances (50 vs. 200) and with pairs of equal weights (50-50 or 200-200). The latter also served as test cases for the effectiveness of the position-cue. From 72 subjects a "paradoxical" learning curve was obtained, rising rapidly until the 29th trial and declining slowly but significantly during the remainder of the 81 trials, indicating a "disappointment" with the cue. The results are independent of explicitly formulated hypotheses concerning the position-weight relationship. Further experiments are in progress to decide between the "relative frequency" and a possible "summation" interpretation of the results.

Factors Associated with IQ Changes in Children. KATHERINE P. BRADWAY, Stanford University.

One hundred and thirty-eight children who had been examined with the Revised Stanford-Binet Scale between the ages of two and five and a half years were located ten years later and re-examined with the same scale. The environments of fifty subjects for whom the critical ratios for the differences between initial and retest IQ's were 1.8 or higher were studied by the method of home interviews. A comparison of environmental factors of twenty-four subjects who had increased in IQ with those of twenty-six subjects who had decreased showed that the variable which was most closely related to direction of IQ change was an ancestral intelligence index based on the intelligence of the parents and grandfathers of the children.

Personality Correlates of Morale: Evidence from Individual Cases. R. NEVITT SANFORD, University of California.

Harding's "Scale for Measuring Civilian Morale," and a comprehensive, specially designed questionnaire were administered to 100 men and 173 women at the University of California on December 4, 1941. A previous paper reported statistical relationships between "morale" score and a variety of personal and social characteristics. The present paper presents two cases—the one a high morale case and the other a low morale case—and seeks to expose the patterns of factors responsible for the differences in morale. With respect to social factors and superficial aspects of behavior the two cases are similar; with respect to certain deep-lying personality factors which seem to have originated in family relationships,

they are markedly different. These differences, it is argued, are mainly responsible for those differences in social and political sentiments reflected in the divergent morale scores.

The Use of a Group Projective Technique in Comparing High School Groups With Different Social Backgrounds. HAROLD KELLEY, University of California. (Introduced by Ralph H. Gundlach.)

Responses to six story topics were obtained from groups which differed in age, sex, nationality, and socio-economic level. The topics were directed toward a projection of ambitions, admiration for an adult, worries, and personal, social, and family difficulties. Significant sex differences were found between the ambitions attributed to the story heroine. The boys represented her as desiring a home and family; the girls gave her a career. In descriptions of a highly admired man, fame became increasingly important in the lower socio-economic and ethnic groups. A significant negative correlation was obtained between dominant and nurturant behavior assigned this hero. Dominance tended to become more important and nurturance less important at the older age level for the Chinese groups. The opposite trend was found for upper class white groups. Significantly more family difficulties were described by the girls and more social difficulties were described by the older groups.

The Morale of Shipyard Workers. RALPH H. GUNDLACH, University of Washington.

This is a preliminary report based upon questionnaires and detailed personal interviews. Two-thirds believe that promotions come through pull and rarely through sheer merit; production is thought to be very inefficient; 40% feel with resentment that many men are idle or are kept doing and undoing useless things.

Bad morale is reflected in low output, high turn-over and absenteeism. Workers have little knowledge of the Nation's major goals; they have little sense of participation or belonging, of cooperating in a mutual job; they are confused by being treated publically both as production heroes and as racketeering loafers.

Introduction of the principles of civilian morale building would increase per-man production 25 to 50%.

An Evaluation of Test Performances of a Group of Psychopathic Delinquents. ROBERT B. VAN VORST, Preston School of Industry.

This study was an attempt to discover how delinquent boys, who had been given the psychiatric diagnosis of 'psychopathic personality' would conform to the response patterns predicated as characteristic of their clinical group. The 1941 revision of the Wechsler-Bellevue Test of Intelligence and the 1942 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory were used. Results secured, while tentative, due to the relatively small number of psychopaths used, do not appear to support the claims of either of the tests, to an extent which would justify defining any characteristic response pattern for the psychopathic personality.

584 BAY AREA, WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

The Foetal Heart as a Responding Mechanism. DORIAN ROSE, University of California.

Foetuses 9.5 mm. to 16 mm. in length prepared by Carmichael's method from pregnant rats 14 to 16 days after time of insemination show significant increases in heart rate preceding and during mechanical stimulation by measured boar's bristles. There is a rough head to tail gradient of frequency of response. (Film).

Saturday Afternoon, June 12

ROUNDTABLE: ON POST-WAR REHABILITATION

ROBERT E. HARRIS, Chairman

Participants:

ROGER G. BARKER, Stanford University

OLGA L. BRIDGMAN, University of California and Dept. of Public Health, San Francisco

HAROLD D. CARTER, University of California

BARBARA A. MAYER, U.S.E.S., San Francisco

LT. T. W. RICHARDS, U.S.N.R., Mare Island Naval Hospital

OUTCOMES OF THE INTERSOCIETY CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

JOHN E. ANDERSON

University of Minnesota

The Intersociety Constitutional Convention of Psychologists met in New York City, Saturday to Monday, May 29-31, 1943, in accordance with the plans formulated by the Sub-committee on Survey and Planning of the Emergency Committee in Psychology of the National Research Council (1) (2) (3) (4). The following delegates attended the meeting as representatives of their respective societies:

American Psychological Association: John E. Anderson, Leonard Carmichael, Clark L. Hull (alternate for John F. Dashiell), Calvin P. Stone, Robert M. Yerkes.

American Association for Applied Psychology: Paul S. Achilles, Stuart H. Britt, Alice I. Bryan, Edgar A. Doll, Arthur W. Kornhauser (C. M. Louttit).

Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues: Gordon W. Allport, Gardner Murphy, Theodore Newcomb.

Society of Experimental Psychologists: Edwin G. Boring, Robert S. Woodworth.

Psychometric Society: Harold A. Edgerton, Irving Lorge, M. W. Richardson, P. J. Rulon (alternate for Paul A. Horst).

National Institute of Psychology: Ernest R. Hilgard.

National Council of Women Psychologists: Florence L. Goodenough, Gladys C. Schwesinger.

Department of Psychology, American Teachers Association: Herman G. Canady.

Section I, American Association for the Advancement of Science: H. E. Garrett, Edna Heidbreder.

Robert M. Yerkes, chairman of the Sub-committee on Survey and Planning, opened the Convention as temporary chairman. In his opening address he described the rapid transformation of the physical environment by discovery, invention and engineering skill, and stressed mastery of the social environment and the development of human engineering as our present task. The world crisis has created a unique opportunity for wisely planned and well directed professional activities. In the world that is to be, psychology will play a significant role if psychologists can only unite in making their visions realities.

The report of the nominating committee was then received and the permanent officers of the Convention elected as follows: Edwin G. Boring, Chairman; Ernest R. Hilgard, Vice-chairman;

Alice I. Bryan, Secretary; and Edna Heidbreder, Vice-secretary. The permanent Chairman opened the deliberations of the Convention by commenting upon the problems of federal and states' rights and stated that somewhere between the poles of centralization and decentralization there should be a form of organization which the American psychologists need and which the constituent societies want. He then outlined the mechanics of the Convention.

After a general discussion in which all delegates participated freely, it became clear that there was general agreement that unification of the efforts of the organizations interested in psychological activities was both desirable and timely. Three types of organization were proposed: (1) a loose federation of societies with a common secretarial office, (2) a reorganization of the American Psychological Association, and (3) the formation of a new society to replace the old societies. The delegates were divided into three committees: the first to formulate a plan for a federation, the second to formulate a plan for an ideal unified society, and the third to formulate a plan involving reorganization of the American Psychological Association. These committees met independently on Saturday evening and prepared detailed reports.

On Sunday morning these reports were presented by the several chairmen and considered in a preliminary discussion, without specific vote on any plan. At the end of the day a vote was taken on the order in which the three plans should be discussed in detail. The vote was 18 for discussing the APA reorganization plan first; 4 for discussing the ideal plan first, and none for discussing the federation plan first. The Convention then proceeded to discuss a plan for the revision of the APA By-Laws. After a number of suggestions had been made, a new and large committee was appointed to study the plan for reorganization already submitted together with the suggestions offered in the meeting and to prepare recommendations.

On Monday this committee, which had been at work the preceding evening, submitted a detailed mimeographed report which was discussed throughout the whole of Monday item by item. Particular emphasis was given to membership requirements, divisional organization, geographical branches and affiliated societies, the substitution of a representative body for the unwieldy business meeting, publication policy, and a mechanism for periodic review of the Association activities and for planning for the future. A Continuation Committee was then selected to frame the pro-

posals adopted by the Convention and arrange for their submission to the members of the constituent societies. On this committee were: E. R. Hilgard, Chairman; Alice I. Bryan, Secretary; Gordon W. Allport, John E. Anderson, Edwin G. Boring, and Edgar E. Doll. The duties of this Continuation Committee included a definitive formulation of the proposals adopted by the Convention and their submission, upon approval by the delegates, to the Governing Boards of the participating societies.

The Continuation Committee began its work by distributing among its own members various sections of the Proposed By-Laws together with the suggestions made by the Convention, for a more precise and detailed formulation. The results of the individual work of Committee members were codified by the Chairman, mimeographed and distributed to all the Convention delegates, with the request that criticisms and comments be returned. Of the 26 delegates present at the Convention, 24 returned suggestions and comments, some of which were long and detailed. These were assembled section by section and gone over with care at a meeting of the Continuation Committee, held August 7 and 8, Hotel Pennsylvania, in New York City, and a revised formulation for presentation to the constituent societies agreed upon.

This revision was presented to the Council of Directors of the American Psychological Association and the Board of Governors of the American Association of Applied Psychologists at the September meetings. These boards made suggestions for revision and recommended that their societies approve the By-Laws in principle and transmit them to their members for vote. This was done by the societies at their respective meetings.

On recommendation of their governing boards, the societies set up a Joint Committee which consists of John E. Anderson, Ernest R. Hilgard, and Willard L. Valentine, for the American Psychological Association, and Alice I. Bryan, C. M. Louttit, and Sidney L. Pressey, for the American Association of Applied Psychologists. The first duty of this committee was the incorporation in the proposed By-Laws of the suggestions made at the board and business meetings of the societies. This was done at a meeting in Evanston, September 2. Its remaining duties are (1) to make a Survey of Opinion regarding the proposed divisional structure, (2) to transmit the Proposed By-Laws to psychologists for suggestions, criticisms and comments in the Fall of 1943, (3) to revise the Proposed By-Laws if that seems desirable, and (4) to submit a

final copy of the Proposed By-Laws to the Members and Associates of the American Psychological Association and of the American Association of Applied Psychologists, in order that a mail vote can be taken in the Spring of 1944. The results of this mail vote, taken through the machinery of the societies, will be available to each society for such action as it deems desirable at its meeting in September, 1944.

The Proposed By-Laws, with a sample Survey of Opinion on the Divisional Structure and a request for criticisms and comments, together with statements by the Continuation Committee of the Intersociety Constitutional Convention and by the Joint Committee of the APA and AAAP will appear in the November issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*.

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PSYCHOLOGY AND THE WAR

Edited by
DONALD G. MARQUIS

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PSYCHOLOGY FOR THE FIGHTING MAN

REPORT OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE ON A TEXTBOOK OF MILITARY PSYCHOLOGY

EDWIN G. BORING

Harvard University

Psychology for the Fighting Man was published by the *Infantry Journal* about July 1 (1). The title page states that it was "prepared for the fighting man himself by a Committee of the National Research Council, with the collaboration of Science Service, as a contribution to the war effort."

The volume has 456 pages—the front matter, 437 pages of text (ca. 115,000 words), and 9 pages of index (ca. 900 items). The book is 'pocket size,' $6\frac{3}{8}$ by $4\frac{1}{4}$ in. with 20-pica lines. The paper is cheap and thin—the volume is just one-half inch thick—but the type is clear and easily legible. The 25-cent edition has a paper cover, although there is also a cloth-covered edition at \$1.50 for libraries (which will not shelve paper-covered books), for reviewing journals (which ignore paper books) and for pedants. The paper-cover books can be bought at 19 cents each in quantities greater than fifty. The royalties go to a special fund of the National Research Council.

The book is distributed to civilians as a *Penguin Book*, to the armed forces by the *Infantry Journal*. One hundred fifty thousand copies have been printed from type. About half the edition was sold to distributors in the first two weeks after publication. Corrections can be made in a second printing, since the composition, a small part of the cost in this kind of publication, will then be done again.

The basic materials of the book were furnished by 60 collaborators, some of whom wrote chapters, others of whom assisted the authors of chapters in minor ways. The chapters were edited or rewritten as a rule by the various members of the Subcommittee, and then rewritten and rewritten antiphonally by Marjorie Van de Water of Science Service and myself, until neither of us was any longer able to criticize the other. After that Colonel Joseph I. Greene of the *Infantry Journal* had his chance at them, as did also Colonel E. L. Munson, Jr. Colonel Greene's careful and elaborate editing was especially valuable for military accuracy and style, and he should properly, in view of his services and constant inspiration, have been a member of the Subcom-

mittee. We also profited editorially in the process of clearance through the National Research Council.

The list of collaborators is given below, with asterisks on the names of the Subcommittee.

- | | |
|--|--|
| *G. W. Allport, Harvard University | Captain E. L. Jaques, M.D., Department of National Defense, Canada |
| T. G. Alper, Harvard University | Ben Karpman, M.D., St. Elizabeth's Hospital |
| J. W. Appel, M.D., Pennsylvania Hospital | R. H. Knapp, Office of Strategic Services |
| Kenneth Appel, M.D., Pennsylvania Hospital | A. W. Kornhauser, University of Chicago |
| H. P. Bechtoldt, Personnel Procedures Section | *H. S. Langfeld, Princeton University |
| J. G. Beebe-Center, Harvard University | D. W. MacKinnon, Bryn Mawr College |
| *W. V. Bingham, Personnel Procedures Section | W. R. Miles, Yale University |
| C. S. Bird, University of Minnesota | C. T. Morgan, Harvard University |
| *E. G. Boring, Harvard University | O. H. Mowrer, Harvard University |
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| A. L. Edwards, Office of War Information | H. A. Murray, Harvard University |
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| Lt. Col. V. C. Fryklund, Armored Force School | Brig. Gen. Guy I. Rowe, Camp Lee |
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| | E. G. Wever, Princeton University |
| | Kimball Young, Queens College |

The volume consists of 20 chapters: an introduction, six chapters on the military uses of perception, three on selection and training of men, two on efficiency, three on motivation, morale and personal adjustment, and five on social relations (leadership, panic, national differences, rumor, psychological warfare). It is invidious to make comparisons in so socialized an undertaking, but Dr. H. S. Langfeld's editorial organization of the third of the book devoted to the perceptual functions is worthy of note.

The preliminary reception of these materials has been good. The *Infantry Journal* published the sections on morale, leadership, panic, rumor, races and peoples, efficiency, training, sight, and hearing in its nine issues from January to September, and will presumably print more. *Shipmates*, a journal for Annapolis graduates, adapted the chapters to the Navy, added dramatic pen sketches, and printed the chapters on morale, rumor, personal adjustment and the perception of position and direction in six issues from February to July, and will presumably print more. The editors of both these journals express enthusiasm about the text and the *Infantry Journal* has already carried a long favorable review of the book. *Life* reprinted a section on emotion, and *Time* a section on morale. Excerpts have also appeared in *Science Digest*, *Magazine Digest* (Canada), and the *Sunday Graphic* (London).

There have been numerous requests from inside the armed forces for permission, official or informal, to reprint or to mimeograph sections for use in instruction. The Chrysler Corporation has distributed some thousands of copies of the chapter on leadership to its officials, supervisors and foremen. One news commentator (Baukage) has praised the book at length in a broadcast and commented favorably upon it in a syndicated column. (This publicity brought in about a thousand orders.) Recent information shows that a unit of the Red Cross is distributing copies of the book to its social workers. These incidents, coupled with some expressed enthusiasm by military men engaged in instruction and by psychologists in the armed services, encourage the belief that this attempt to write valid psychology popularly and interestingly may succeed. There have already been favorable reviews—some very favorable—in the *New York Times Book Review*, *Science*, the *Saturday Review of Literature*, *Newsweek*, and the *New York Sun*.

The response from other psychologists is becoming clear. The older men who are closely associated with the needs of the Army and Navy seem to approve the book, many of them with enthusi-

asm. A few who have reacted negatively at first to its English style seem to have changed their minds. The negative criticisms, direct or implied, that have already come to me, are mostly from younger psychologists who seem to feel that rigorous scientific standards of exposition have been violated. While it would be odd to find youth more pedantic than age, it is after all reasonable to suppose that flexibility should depend on security and that standards recently acquired could not be relaxed.

The Subcommittee is continuing its work by the preparation of a textbook of military psychology more nearly at the collegiate level. This book will introduce general principles and more evidence than was possible in *Psychology for the Fighting Man*, while still attempting to avoid pedantry, the discussion of method, and the presentation of facts as the results of a single research. While it was hoped to publish this new text in the fall, the task is considerable and no prediction is possible at the present time.

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PSYCHOLOGY FOR THE FIGHTING MAN

A SPECIAL REVIEW

WALTER S. HUNTER

Brown University

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL AND SCIENCE SERVICE. *Psychology for the fighting man*. Washington, D. C. and New York: Infantry Journal, Penguin Books, 1943. Pp. 456.

When the Emergency Committee in Psychology of the National Research Council approved the preparation under its auspices of a book on military psychology, wisdom dictated the assignment of the responsible editorship to E. G. Boring. It was necessary, however, for the Committee to proceed beyond this point and to decide whether the book should be a handbook, a textbook for study, or a volume to be read and enjoyed by the soldier whose schedule called for no training in psychology. Bearing in mind the confidential and restricted character of much of the current work in military psychology, the decision was made to prepare a volume suitable for non-classroom reading. This involved writing in a popular science style which no academic psychologist had mastered. For this reason the Emergency Committee suggested that the services of Miss Marjorie Van de Water of Science Service be secured, and she was added to the editorial group. The contribution which the present volume makes to the widespread understanding of the essentials of military psychology is due to two equally important factors: (1) the assembling of essential factual material by the Editor's professional collaborators; and (2) the skill of Miss Van de Water and Dr. Boring with the aid of Colonels Greene and Munson in writing English that the non-student public can read.

The level at which the book is written and its consequent popular appeal have caused some apprehension and adverse comment. The reviewer's own attitude can best be expressed by a quotation from a letter written to a non-psychologist whose official status required him to have an opinion on the prospective book: "There is a great similarity between medicine and psychology that should be noticed in this connection. In medicine one has (1) the medical sciences, (2) the practice or application of medical knowledge, and (3) the teaching of the patient to understand and care for himself. So in psychology one has (1) experimental or fact finding psy-

chology, (2) the application of this knowledge in industry, the Army, etc. and (3) the teaching of the individual to understand and care for himself particularly now in fear and conflict situations. Such sciences as physics and chemistry have only two of the above aspects, science and technology. They lack the third since you cannot teach a solution or a radio set to take care of itself or to understand itself."

Without listing all of the chapter headings and authors (given by E. G. Boring elsewhere in this issue of the *Bulletin*), one can get an impression of the contents and nature of the book by noting a few of the topics discussed: sight as a weapon, hearing as a tool in warfare, the right soldier in the right job, morale, leadership, the soldier's personal adjustment, and psychological warfare. Since the topics selected and the amount of space allotted to them were determined by practical usefulness, it is worthwhile to note that approximately 34% of the textual material is devoted to sensory and perceptual problems; 27%, to social behavior; 22% to learning and efficiency; and 11%, to personality. The great applied importance of sensory psychology will not surprise the experimentalist, but it may give others food for thought. Certainly it suggests that some writers of college texts may be seriously in error when they allot about 10% of space to this topic. Experience has already indicated that *Psychology for the Fighting Man* can be advantageously used as a supplementary college text. It has no systematic scientific bias toward Gestalt, behaviorism or structuralism. Although some errors may be expected in the text, few will obtrude themselves on the general reader. The reviewer however would like to object to the continued printing of a diagram of the ear (Fig. 30) showing the cochlea pointing up and in rather than down, out and forward which is the true state of affairs. One specific excellent feature of the volume is the frequent account of simple observations that can be made of psychological phenomena, e.g. the account on page 68 of observations on dark adaptation. Qualitative observations of this type have an important role in acquainting the student with psychological phenomena. E. C. Sanford's *A Course in Experimental Psychology* (1898) stressed such procedures but their further development was halted, or obscured, by the vogue of the more "rigorous" procedures of Titchener's experimental manuals. At present no collection of this very valuable type of material is available. Presumably it exists only in the repertoires of successful teachers.

So far as the reviewer knows, there are no other books in this field with which *Psychology for the Fighting Man* can be fairly compared, although one thinks at once of F. C. Bartlett's *Psychology and the Soldier* (1927) and of the *Psychology of Military Leadership* (1943) by L. A. Pennington, R. B. Hough and H. W. Case. The anonymous authors of the following discussions in the present volume deserve special commendation: vision, how men meet defeat, the soldier's personal adjustment, and leadership.

PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SELECTION OF RECRUITS
AT THE U. S. NAVAL TRAINING STATION,
NEWPORT, RHODE ISLAND*

WILLIAM A. HUNT, LIEUTENANT-COMMANDER, H-V(S), U.S.N.R.

Every recruit receives an individual interview with a psychiatrist as part of his medical reexamination upon arrival at the U. S. Naval Training Station in Newport, Rhode Island (7, 8). This neuropsychiatric reexamination has been found necessary, even though most of the recruits have received a previous screening in their induction center (6). If the psychiatrist feels that the recruit may be feeble-minded or illiterate, he immediately refers him to a psychologist stationed in the receiving building. Here the suspected recruit is given a brief 10-minute individual test for intelligence, a test which has been described elsewhere (5). It is devised primarily for the purpose of rapid detection of the feeble-minded recruit. Some of the testing which the psychologist does in the receiving unit is done upon neuropsychiatric cases where the diagnostic picture is unclear and where the psychiatrist feels that a psychometric test may well bring out further material which will be helpful in clarifying the possibility of some fundamental psychopathy. If those men who have been suspected only of feeble-mindedness pass the intelligence test in the receiving unit, they are sent to duty. If the results are doubtful, the men are sent to trial duty and called in for re-observation at a later date after they have had a chance at adjustment to the demands of the training period. At this time a report from their company commanders is available to aid the psychologist in making his decision as to the recruits' suitability for service. If they fail in the examination in the receiving building, they are immediately referred to the observation ward for further testing and possible elimination from the Naval service.

On the observation ward they are seen by another psychologist, who administers a Wechsler-Bellevue test to them. Other tests may be given when indicated if it is necessary to evaluate further specific reading difficulties, and educational and language handicaps. The specific tests given vary with the demands of each case. While he is on the observation ward, the recruit is also sent to the

* The opinions or assertions contained herein are the private ones of the writer and are not to be construed as official or reflecting the views of the Navy Department or the Naval Service at large.

Selection Department, where he receives the General Classification Test, a spiral omnibus paper-and-pencil test of intelligence. The results of all these tests are evaluated in deciding upon the recruit's disposal. Should he convince the psychologist of his acceptability, he is sent to duty from the observation ward. If not, a recommendation for his discharge is made to the Aptitude Board. Each man whose discharge is recommended has thus been seen by two different psychologists and has received one group and two individual tests.

Recommendations for discharge are presented to the Aptitude Board. According to the Naval directive, one of the five members of this board must be a psychologist. The other members are two psychiatrists, one general medical officer, and one Line officer. All special order discharges for any reason at all are reviewed by this board. The board's recommendations are then reviewed by the Commanding Officer, and his decision is final.

In addition to the cases of suspected feeble-mindedness and illiteracy, the psychologist on the observation ward is called upon to handle many cases referred to him by the psychiatrist, who may wish a psychometric testing in order that possible deterioration or abnormal mental functioning may be demonstrated in the test situation. Personality tests, such as the Rorschach Ink Blots, are also given where requested in psychiatric cases. Every recruit sometime during his stay at the Training Station is given a series of educational tests by the Selection Department. All men scoring below a certain point on these tests are referred to the psychologist for further examination for feeble-mindedness or illiteracy. In addition, men may be sent in for examination from the trade schools, Sick Bay, and from Ship's Company.

The directives setting forth the duties of the Neuropsychiatric Unit include the task of improving current techniques of examination. While the first task of the Neuropsychiatric Unit is the carrying out of the screening process itself, wherever time and opportunity offer themselves a genuine research attempt is made to improve the methods of screening, in order that the working efficiency of the Unit may be raised. Among such practical investigations undertaken by the Newport Unit have been ones on the importance of test scatter as a diagnostic aid (3), the detection of malingering (2), the use of neurotic inventories (4), and the usefulness of the electroencephalogram in the prognosis of head injury cases (1). Here the special talents of the psychologist are impor-

tant because of his research training and familiarity with statistical techniques.

The Newport Unit has always operated with the philosophy that the abilities of the psychiatrist, with his specialized clinical training, and of the psychologist, with his mastery of objective techniques, are complementary to one another and that the best results in screening are obtained when these two disciplines work together as a unit.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE H-D CODE APTITUDE TEST: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

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In the May issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*, there appeared a comprehensive article on the development of code aptitude tests for Army needs (1). The report described four different types of tests. The least efficient of these was the Substitution Test, a paper and pencil test which involved the learning of paired associates. Another was the Code Rhythm Test which "... measures the ability of an individual to differentiate between the dots and dashes used in code and to remember code patterns of varying length" (1, p. 363). A third type was the ROA (Radiotelegraph Operator Aptitude Test) which measures the ability to make auditory discriminations. Of the fourth the article reports, "The code learning test, which attempts to sample the job involved in the training itself, appears to be definitely the most promising approach at present to the problem of selecting inexperienced men who will master the code most rapidly" (1, p. 368). The latter CLT test has a reported reliability in the high .90's, and validity coefficients of $-.46$, $-.41$, $-.36$, and $-.33$ for inexperienced students who attained a speed of 4, 8, 12, and 16 words per minute respectively.

This brief report aims firstly to describe some of the results obtained in the preliminary tryout of a different approach at St. Louis University, where a program had been instituted to train civilians as instructors in Radiotelegraph Operation; and secondly, to set forth other results pertinent to code aptitude tests.

This research was undertaken because the school authorities were dissatisfied with the efficiency of the ROA test mentioned above. The latter test was used regularly in the school's orientation program. The re-test reliability coefficient was found to be .73 on a group of 41 students which is almost identical with the .75 reported in the May article. Validity coefficients hovered very close to $-.40$, a figure higher than the range of $-.25$ to $-.30$ reported in the article cited. Doubtless the presence of a few experienced operators in our groups may account to some degree for the higher validity coefficients.

As a first step toward improving the selection of potential operators at St. Louis University, a careful "job analysis" of the

learning situation was made. From this analysis it was concluded that the following measurable factors would be most likely to prove significant in code receiving: 1) auditory discrimination; 2) associative memory of a kind where a certain pattern of sounds can be retained in mind and recognized among other patterns; 3) sustained concentration—there were instances in which students showed abilities (1) and (2) but could not receive code solidly because of apparently involuntary lapses of attention; 4) sense of rhythmic patterns, a factor which appears to be less necessary at the lower speeds but more important at the higher speeds; 5) auditory-motor coordination; and 6) speed of reaction.

The validity of the foregoing analysis appears to be strikingly confirmed by the different approaches employed by psychologists as described in the May report.

With this job analysis in mind, the experimenters set up a test situation which presupposed auditory discrimination, but which, it was believed, also measured other factors, particularly associative memory and sustained concentration. Essentially the test consists in giving a key signal which the individual is instructed to retain in mind and compare with other signals. Then a series of ten test signals is given, each of similar length to the key signal which included from two to six dots and dashes in code. The examinee's task is to select from among the test signals those which are identical to the key signal. This is done by checking a mimeographed sheet. The score is calculated by the addition of the errors made in the whole test. The administration time is approximately twenty-five minutes including allowance for directions.

In its preliminary form the new test included twenty-six series, each made up of a key signal and ten test signals. An analysis of this form was carried out with scores obtained from administration of the test to students without previous code experience. The analysis showed the following facts:

1. The reliability of the new H-D test, as determined by the split-half method and the Spearman-Brown formula, was found to be .80 in a group of fifty students without code training.

2. The correlation between scores in the new H-D and the ROA tests was .61 for a group of 27 beginning students. This indicates that the two tests tend to measure somewhat the same ability although the other evidence suggests that the new test measures this ability more efficiently than does the ROA test.

3. The validity of the new test in its preliminary form was

determined by correlating the original test scores with code speed after ninety-six hours' training in code. In a group of twenty-five students a correlation coefficient of $-.50$ was obtained, a figure which is highly significant statistically as indicating relationship. In the same group the ROA test yielded a validity coefficient of $-.36$. The number of cases is small but the new test shows enough promise to warrant further research.

4. In an analysis of each series, it was found that those series containing items with the greatest and least number of elementary dots and dashes, namely, six and two, were least discriminating between high and low aptitude scores, and between high and low speed scores in actual code learning. Consequently, in a revised and lengthened form of the new test it was decided to include more items containing patterns of three, four, and five elementary sounds.

5. A correlation of $-.20$ was found between intelligence as determined by the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, Form 1942, and error score on the H-D Code Aptitude Test. The group studied was highly selected, and more than half of the individuals were college graduates. By itself this single correlation coefficient is not statistically reliable but it coincides with the results obtained among larger groups, as reported in the article cited above.

6. A correlation coefficient was also calculated between age and error score on the new code aptitude test. The coefficient of $-.09$, determined on twenty-eight students ranging from 20 to 46 years in age, is not statistically reliable.

7. A re-test, after the students had received ninety-six hours of code instruction, demonstrated that experience would affect appreciably the scores on the new aptitude test. The average error score of twenty-six students on the H-D Code Aptitude Test was 42.0 on the first administration, and 12.0 after the code instruction; this difference was significant beyond the 1% level of confidence. Obviously, the effect of including experienced operators in a validity study would be to raise the coefficient considerably.

No further experimentation of the H-D Code Aptitude Test is possible at St. Louis University because the training program is being discontinued. However, the results obtained from the preliminary form of this test would seem to indicate the possibilities of improved efficiency of prediction if it could be tried out elsewhere. The reliability of the instrument could be increased

by the inclusion of more discriminative series, and by standardizing the procedure of administration. Accordingly, the original test has been lengthened in line with the item analysis already mentioned, and the revised form transcribed upon phonograph records. In this form, its predictive efficiency still awaits verification.

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PSYCHOLOGY AND THE WAR: NOTES

The Army Specialized Training Program. The course in Advanced Personnel Psychology of the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) has been described earlier (*Psychological Bulletin*, 1943, 40, 429-435). The following eleven universities were selected to conduct this training program, and during June and July approximately 100 students were enrolled in each of the universities.

Cornell University	University of Chicago
Harvard University	University of Iowa
Ohio State University	University of Minnesota
Purdue University	University of Pennsylvania
Stanford University	University of Pittsburgh
University of California	

Changes in the Office of Psychological Personnel. Dr. Donald G. Marquis has been appointed Director of the Office of Psychological Personnel replacing Steuart Henderson Britt who resigned May 30, 1943, to accept a commission as Lieutenant in the USNR. Dr. Marquis will serve part-time in the Washington office and will continue as Chairman of the Department of Psychology, Yale University. Mrs. Jane D. Morgan has been appointed Assistant to the Director to replace Miss Iris M. Stevenson who resigned July 30, 1943, to take a commission in the WAVES.

The Office of Psychological Personnel is supported by the national psychological associations under the auspices of the National Research Council, and is located in the building of the National Academy of Sciences, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington, D. C.; telephone Executive 8100, extension 175. The function of the Office is the furtherance of the effective utilization of psychology and of psychologists in the war effort. Detailed reports of Office activities have been published in the *Psychological Bulletin* (1942, 39, 773-793; 1943, 40, 436-446).

A central file is maintained of information submitted by psychologists willing to be considered for positions in Federal agencies, special research projects, universities, etc. Upon request from a prospective employer, a list of names of those who appear qualified and interested in the position is furnished. Approximately twenty such requests, for from one to ten psychologists, are received each month. Any psychologist may avail himself of this service by writing to the OPP for registration blanks.

When a psychologist is inducted into military service, a statement of his qualifications, training, and experience is sent to the appropriate officer in the Army, Navy or Marines where it is available when needs for specialized personnel arise in classification and replacement. Psychologists who expect to be inducted in the future should, therefore, file registration forms and subsequently notify the OPP of the exact date and place of their induction.

The Office also serves as a central "clearing house" for information regarding the activities of psychologists in military and government work, and for information about projects and developments of interest to psychologists.

BOOK REVIEWS

ZILBOORG, GREGORY (in collaboration with HENRY, GEORGE W.). A History of Medical Psychology. New York: W. W. Norton, 1941. Pp. 606.

A detailed review of this massive history of medical psychology is out of the question but a brief condensation that will bring into bold relief the trunk lines in the evolution of medical psychology can be attempted. Its author prefers the term "medical psychology" because it is at once older and more comprehensive than either "psychiatry" or "abnormal psychology." As here used, "medical psychology" embraces everything practical as well as theoretical relating to the cause, cure or prevention of mental illness.

The advancement of medical psychology is closely linked with the fortunes of the naturalistic approach to mental illness, which exhibits two evolutionary tendencies. One pertains to methodology and runs from clinical observation, description, classification to experimentation. The other pertains to the etiology of mental disease and runs from physiogenic and constitutional to psychogenic (sociogenic) explanations.

Among the ancient Greeks and Romans who also had supernaturalistic and metaphysical explanations naturalistic theories attained their clearest expression in *Hippocrates*, *Celsus* and *Galen* who assigned causal roles in the genesis of mental illness to body humors (phlegm, bile, blood), warmth and dampness in the brain, climatic conditions. Hysteria was associated with perignations or engorgements of the womb. Hippocrates and Galen with their medicopsychological materialism laid the foundation for the tradition of identifying the naturalistic approach with physiogenic theory. They introduced clinical observation and a classification of mental diseases namely, malancholia, mania and epilepsy. Among cures suggested were bleeding, emetics, white hellebore and other purgatives.

"Medical wisdom came to an end with the passing of Galen." The Dark Ages of medical psychology set in with the influx of a peculiar conglomerate of Jewish, Egyptian and Persian superstition and charlatanism. For a thousand years mental disease was variously associated with spirits, demons (incubi and succubi), astrology, alchemy and a garbled humoral psychology of the Greeks and Romans.

Out of this hotch-potch gradually crystallized the idea "that physical illnesses were natural and that mental illnesses were mostly supernatural." The darkest period of medical psychology came just at the dawn of the Renaissance when sometime between 1487 and 1489 Heinrich Kraemer and Johann Sprenger, fervently believing the mentally ill to be witches possessed of or in league with the devil, published their *Malleus Maleficarum* (The Witches' Hammer) in which most human ills and particularly sexual disorders are attributed to witchcraft. Subsequently these monks succeeded in persuading Pope Innocent VIII to issue a bull empowering them to seek out, convict and punish witches as they saw fit. Thus did the Inquisition get its start. In the sixteenth century and a goodly part of the seventeenth, the world went mad witch-hunting and witch-burning. Several hundred thousands of mentally ill individuals

were burned at the stake or tortured beyond repair. It fell to the lot of women to suffer most direfully in this holocaust. But even in the presence of such persecutions, the medical profession and some leaders of thought remained conservative on the question of witchcraft.

Strangely enough, one good that may be associated with the era of witch-persecution was the impetus given to a few courageous leaders to examine fearlessly the human mind and to study empirically and descriptively the nature of mental disease, particularly the role of emotions, and to voice protest against Inquisitorial sadism. For the first time the term "psychology" was used in 1590 by Rudolf Goeckel,

Thus came about the *first psychiatric revolution* in which *Juan Luis Vives* (1492-1540), *Paracelsus* (1493-1541), *Heinrich Cornelius Agrippa* (1486-1535) and the latter's pupil, *Johann Weyer* (1515-1588) by way of protest laid the foundation for a scientific and humane attitude towards the mentally ill. Vives advocated humanitarian treatment and stressed the psychodynamics of emotion in the genesis of mental suffering. Paracelsus regarded mental illness as natural disease, rejected demonology unequivocally, and was even opposed to attaching the names of saints or devils to any disease. Agrippa, like Vives, defended the nobility and achievements of women against the sadistic misogyny of the monks. His attack both upon monkdom and upon the hypocritical medical profession made him a victim of slander and vengeance. Johann Weyer, styled by Zilboorg "the father of modern psychiatry," persistently maintained that the so-called witches were innocent and as sick people should be turned over to a physician for treatment. He accused the persecuting priests and monks of being the real sorcerers. He refuted many contentions of the pernicious *Malleus Maleficarum* and likewise many current superstitions which he held up to ridicule in the light of his clinical observations. Although he believed that malicious individuals poison others, he felt that the devil was not to be blamed for such crimes. He stressed the role of phantasy and imagination in the causation of much mental illness. Jean Bodin (1530-1596) sought conspicuously to set the clock back by defending the *Malleus Maleficarum* against Weyer's attacks. As a lawyer Bodin strenuously opposed Weyer's suggestion that the criminally insane are not responsible and should be turned over to physicians for study and treatment. Paul Zacchias (1584-1659) in his adherence to the position of Bodin in respect to the legal responsibility of the criminally insane deserved to be called the founder of legal medicine. Bodin and Zacchias did much towards that rigidification of the legal mind against psychiatry which persists even unto the present day.

Not until the 18th century did the reform-notions suggested by Vives, Paracelsus, Agrippa and Weyer bear fruit. Although the mentally ill were no longer being burned at the stake, their lot was still pitiable. Frequently chained, they were now being herded without regard to sex, age or condition into foul prisons. Either no effort was made for them save to restrain them or else, in medical quarters, they were the subjects for bizarre neuroiatro-mechanical experiments such as blood-transfusions, blood-letting, ducking etc., which are strongly suggestive of some present-day practices such as insulin-shock, metrazol-injection and the drilling of

small holes in the frontal region. Two prison-asylums of this period gained great notoriety: Bicêtre in Paris and Bedlam in England. It was to the pandemonium of the Bicêtre that *Philippe Pinel* (1745-1826) came in the role of superintendent. Dr. Pinel's first act was the removal of the iron chains from the insane. He followed with a number of humanitarian practices such as fresh air, sunlight and reverence for the individual personality. He introduced systematic taking and keeping of case-histories. He was soon called to head the Salpêtrière where also "mad men and women" were locked up. Here Pinel ordered the chains removed, re-organized and trained the personnel, advocated "moral treatment" and studied cases under a fourfold classification: mania, melancholia, dementia and idiocy.

About the same time *Anton Mesmer* (1734-1815) who came to Paris with his newly discovered "animal magnetism" took the city by storm with the spectacle of the miraculous cure of hysterical women and of the artificial production of hysterical phenomena. The medical profession was both incredulous and denunciatory. A joint committee from the *Académie des Sciences* and the Faculty of Medicine was appointed to examine the practice and curative effects of magnetism. The committee reported that "imagination without magnetism produces convulsions," that "magnetism without imagination produces nothing," that animal magnetic fluid "does not exist" and that the violent effects seen in public treatments result "from the imagination which is set in action." The repeated excitement of the imagination to produce crises was adjudged as harmful. However, Mesmerism did not down. *Charcot* towards the end of Pinel's life began his studies of mesmerism at the Salpêtrière. Later (1837) *John Elliotson*, professor of medicine at the University of London, and *James Esdaille* in India (1846) introduced mesmerism as an anaesthetic in surgical operations. In America *P. P. Quimby* (1861) cured Mary Baker (Eddy) of hysterical paralysis with mesmerism. Back in England *James Braid* (1795-1860) who became interested scientifically in the study of mesmerism rechristened it "hypnotism," discounted the magnetic fluid or the magic of the ceremony and lodged the secret of hypnotism in the suggestibility of the subject and in the soporific character of the suggestions given. Subsequently a distinction sprang up between the Salpêtrière School under *Charcot* and *Janet* and the Nancy School under *Liébeault* and *Bernheim* as whether suggestibility is a morbid phenomenon or a normal one with the Nancy School subscribing to its normality. *Zilboorg* attributes to Mesmer the discovery of the neuroses, i.e. the psychogenic maladies.

The nineteenth century saw medical psychology entrench itself. "The growing interest in the mentally ill, the study of mental illness, the building of hospitals and clinics, the foundation of psychiatric societies and psychiatric periodicals, the publication of many and voluminous books on medico-psychological subjects makes the psychiatry of the nineteenth century a confusing and complex structure of manifold aspects." In these matters France took the early lead with the most prominent names being *Guillaume Ferrus* (1784-1861), *J. E. D. Esquirol* (1772-1840), *Fodéré* (1764-1835), *J. P. Falret* (1794-1870), *B. A. Morel*

(1809-1873) and *Magnan* (1835-1916). "French medical psychology was at once humanistic, rational, practical and experimental. It remained firmly rooted in the physiogenic, distrustful of psychogenic explanations." Rousseau's 18th century elucidation of man's enmity with his nature as basic cause of man's misery, not to mention similar sociogenic indications of the 19th century as to the origin of mental conflict from *Maine de Biran* and *Jouffroy* (*homo duplex* theory) down to *Bergson* (theory of the *Moi profond* and the *Moi parasite*), had but little, if any, influence upon the dominant physiogenic trend of French medical psychology.

In England interest was confined to hospital reform, legislative reform and hospital organization. Conspicuous in this regard was the work of *Daniel Hack Tuke* (1827-1895), great-grandson of *William Tuke* who had founded the York Retreat. The name of *H. Maudsley* (1835-1918) became more widely known by reason of his many publications in which he persistently subscribed to the physiogenesis of mental illness. Anemia, toxic states of the blood, other circulatory defects, infections, poison, overexertion were for him the etiological factors.

In America *Benjamin Rush* pioneered psychiatry but did no more than introduce European tradition. A high spot in American psychiatry of the nineteenth century came about the time of the Civil War when *Dorothea L. Dix* took it upon herself to lobby State legislatures to provide for the building of State insane asylums. She met with remarkable success and subsequently carried her campaign to England. The *American Psychiatric Association* was formed in 1844 and it in turn founded in the same year the *Journal of Insanity*.

Germany entering the field somewhat tardily produced four world-famous psychiatrists: *Wilhelm Griesinger* (1817-1868), *Karl L. Kahlbaum* (1828-1899), *Emil Kraepelin* (1855-1926) and *Krafft-Ebing* (1840-1903). These and many other leaders of German psychiatry were dyed-in-the-wool somatologists and as such were definitely opposed to all romanticizing about a psychogenesis of mental disturbance. All were interested in nosography. Kraepelin's twofold classification of mental diseases into dementia praecox and manic depressive psychosis attracted world-wide attention. Kraepelin, a student of Wundt's, did not become head of an asylum but of a psychiatric research institute in Munich which devoted itself to the study of the physiology, cerebral anatomy and heredity of mental diseases. In America the Phipps Psychiatric Institute, long headed by *Adolf Meyer*, was to become a research center somewhat similar to the one presided over by Kraepelin but differing from it in that every possible approach to mental illness was to be open to exploration. The physiogenic-constitutional approach, despite its dominance in German medical psychology of the 19th century, was not unopposed. *J. C. Heinroth*, *A. Haindorf*, *F. Groos*, *Carl W. Ideler*, *F. E. Beneke* and *E. Feuchtersleben*, along with the philosopher-psychologist, *Friedrich Nietzsche*, protested medico-psychological materialism and with romantic fervor gave prominence to the psychogenesis of mental illness, i.e. to the role of suggestion and of conflict between natural human yearnings and social restraints.

What *Zilboorg* characterizes as the second psychiatric revolution was

the twentieth century shift of emphasis from constitution and physiogenesis to psychogenesis, i.e. sociogenesis. Zilboorg attributes this revolt to the psychoanalysis of *Sigmund Freud*. It was Freud (1856-1939) who at last formulated within medical circles a psychology which could convincingly explain neuroses—a psychology the lack of which had impeded so long the advancement of the psychogenic approach to mental illness. His was a dynamic psychology which recognized the instinctual tendencies of man, particularly the sex-instinct. Cultural repression of instinctual tendency leads to neurotic derailment of this instinctual tendency as seen in conversion-hysteria, anti-social attitudes, dual personality, dreaming, pleasure-thinking, anxiety- and guilt-feelings, compromise-reactions, regression etc. What appears so singular is the fact that this dynamic psychology intimated for centuries by philosophers, novelists, sexologists and even by more romantic psychiatrists like Heinroth, Ideler and others, had not borne fruit in medical psychology long before Freud. The reason, however, may be seen in the fact that the somatologists having the ascendancy in psychiatry and identifying science with materialism had steadfastly refused to yield the floor to any immaterialistic theories. Freud himself had no easy time in getting himself heard.

Freud did not deny the existence of mental illnesses which are due to constitutional (the psychopathies and mental deficiency) or somatic factors (the psychoses) but did insist that he was not concerned with such abnormalities. His theory and practice were strictly confined to the neuroses.

Freud's vast influence on medical psychology was due in part to his enthusiastic disciples and to the many journals of the psychoanalytic movement, not to say anything of the prodigious number of writings by the founder himself. Freudianism found welcome in America, G. Stanley Hall, A. A. Brill, Smith Ely Jelliffe, William Alanson White, James J. Putnam warmly endorsing and enlarging upon it. Among Freud's immediate pupils the two most illustrious were *Alfred Adler* and *Carl Jung* who have themselves made signal contributions of their own to the psychodynamic theory of the neuroses. Among important psychiatrists in charge of mental hospitals the first to be won to the psychoanalytic viewpoint were *Eugen Bleuler* in Switzerland and *William Alanson White* in America. The former in association with Carl Jung sought a psychogenic explanation of dementia praecox and rechristened the malady "schizophrenia."

In the light of all this great progress made in medico-psychological knowledge it is highly amusing to read in the preface by Reverend Montague Summers to his, the first English translation (1928) of the *Malleus Maleficarum* a pious belief in witches, at least figuratively speaking, and a justification of the methods employed by the Holy Office to exterminate that dark fraternity of which the Third International, the Anarchists, the Nihilists and the Bolsheviks are to be regarded as variants unfortunately surviving today and hell-bent on destroying monarchy, private property, inheritance, marriage, order and religion.

The final two chapters of Zilboorg's book are contributed by Dr. Henry who presents the history and present status of psychiatric knowledge about each of the definitely organic mental diseases (general paralysis, senile psychosis, alcoholic psychoses) and the history of mental hospitals.

Zilboorg's study, obviously a life-work, is a remarkable piece of scholarship and a serious contribution to the history of science. Yet many phases of the history of medical psychology are not touched, such as the history of American medical psychology, the history of psychiatric nursing, the history of out-patient care, the history of the mental hygiene movement. The author is, however, cognizant of these shortcomings but confesses that he must leave these matters to other historians.

A chapter which should have been appended to this book would have sketched for the past few decades the various dynamic and mechanistic theories of the psychogenesis of neurotic disturbances. On the dynamic side mention should have been made, beyond the Freudian School, of Jaspers of Cultural Science Psychology, Adler of Individual Psychology, McDougall of Purposive Behaviorism and Stern of Personalism. On the mechanistic side mention is certainly due J. B. Watson, Pavlov, Janet, Hollingworth and Guthrie.

The academic psychologist, as Zilboorg would leave it appear, has contributed almost nothing to this evolution of medical psychology. That point of view or better that blind-spot may be accounted for at least in part by the fact that the author and his collaborator are both medical men. Certainly a psychologist has a right to expect some mention of psychologists who are not medical men but who have contributed to aspects of medical psychology such as Binet, Tredgold, Goddard on mental deficiency, Franz and Lashley on the vicariate functioning of the brain, Koehler on the nature of intelligence and Gelb, Goldstein and Fuchs on brain-injured patients. Nowhere in Zilboorg's work is mention made of the *British Journal of Medical Psychology* or of the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. Singularly, it is just against such insularity on the part of medical men that Zilboorg complained in so many parts of his work.

The 17th century which Zilboorg leaves rather barren of medico-psychological works saw produced an imperishable one: "*The Anatomy of Melancholy*" by Robert Burton. This book so largely concerned with what has more recently been styled "neuroses" is left unmentioned by Zilboorg.

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WOLF, A. W. M. Our children face war. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1942. Pp. vii + 214.

The author's intention is to present suggestions that are helpful to parents and teachers in dealing with children in war-time. Although some of the suggestions are not new, except perhaps to the lay reader, others are based on recent findings in both technical researches and prac-

tical fields. The author shows good judgment, tempered by experience, in presenting suggestions that are practical, constructive and psychologically sound.

Among the ideas presented, one finds certain salient ideas that are frequently reiterated. A few of these are: There is no child psychology operative in war-time that is different from that of peace-time. A child's ability to meet the uncertainties caused by war is dependent on his mother's emotional balance and fortitude—it is from her that he takes his cues. Affection genders a feeling of security in times of crisis. Family solidarity fosters not only good morale but growth in democratic living. Hope for the future peace of the world rests on the cultivation of wholesome attitudes toward individuals as well as toward groups.

The author emphasizes the mother's role almost to the complete exclusion of the father. She presumes, rather erroneously, that most fathers are either in the armed forces or so preoccupied with defense work that they exert a negligible influence on the life of a child. In this the author reveals the bias of her sex. Chapter V, "Women and the War," although interesting, tends to be devoted to women in the upper income bracket, and hence is limited in scope.

The author's style is good, illustrations are frequent, section titles are suggestive. Several chapters have excellent summaries. There is a classified list of readings. Although chapters I, IV and VI are strongest, the lay reader will find the entire book interesting and profitable reading.

GEORGE J. DUDYCHA

Ripon College

KATONA, GEORGE. War without inflation—The psychological approach to problems of war economy. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. x+213.

The focus here is a concrete social problem, the fostering of anti-inflation morale; yet there is frequent and pointed discussion of the methodological issues involved in this scientific approach. It is the author's concern to demonstrate that certain psychological facts and principles add much, in fact, seriously modify the current economic theories about inflation. What follows is an insightful application of these psychological considerations to the concrete question of preventing dangerous price-soaring, through proper government publicity, or mass communication. The legal and economic requirements are never ignored nor underestimated; yet new attention is called to certain psychological requirements for cooperative public attitudes in a democracy at war.

The traditional theory of inflation views it as an automatic process rising out of "impersonal" economic factors, such as the absolute supply and demand of commodities, their relative price levels, and the consequent flow of currencies. The standard texts and classic treatises usually ignore the variable psychological factors affecting the "economic persons" in these economic processes; yet there are surely significant variations possible in the *expectations* of these persons about the "purely" economic factors, such as price, supply, etc., and changes may be sought in their selfishness, the *motivation* of their behavior, beyond those of

profit. Katona's psychological principles deal with these two aspects especially as they affect the consumer, the general public. Thus the government must carefully explain the framework for such measures as price-fixing and rationing; full understanding of the economic dynamics and of their dangers are proposed as prerequisite for satisfactory response to the legal measures. Also, the various types of taxation and of appeals for saving are believed most effectively responded to by rational, responsible cooperation, rather than compulsion or "reward and punishment." The key is a reasonable, democratic psychological preparation. "Explaining, then, has the function of making people endure a deprivation willingly" (75).

A number of very practical suggestions are made in the section on government publicity, to meet the need for effective explanation, for adequate advertising, and for the productive punishment of violators. Towards these ends, the government must have a sufficiently intimate appreciation of public attitudes and practices, through a careful use of opinion polls and interviews; these devices for implementing democratic rule are subjected to an especially keen critique. The author discusses, finally, some potential needs for a post-war psychological campaign to enlist public morale against the dangerous economic conditions likely to prevail.

It is with the psychological principles utilized, not the purely economic analysis, that some issue is to be taken. The principles are closely related to the experimental findings in the author's previous book ("Organizing and Memorizing," 1940), and are allied to the tenets of Gestalt psychology. The emphasis is on the potential values of the objective understanding of "the requirements of the field," on the power of reason in producing rational behavior. There is a minimization of the importance of reward and punishment, of "repetition," and of other "non-rational learning" as being "rare and not enduring" (65). As applied to this real social problem, the devaluation of less intelligent behavior is misleading, and overoptimistic. And as a methodological resolution, the dichotomy of behavior, with or without rationality, is overdrawn and somewhat unnatural. For reasonable behavior occurs always within an implicit framework of goals and values and motives, and of the rewards and punishments en route. And "repetition" must be admitted as often being successful, though the success may appear to be lacking in common sense values. But there is always at least a looser framework of meaning within which repetition, or even a single occurrence, of a learning situation serves a relevant function or purpose, or meets certain needs of the individual. Katona concedes, for example, that unfounded rumors may form strong associations and incentives to action (59). But, typically, the focus is wrongly placed on the frequency of repetition of the rumor,—not on the more basic field factor of the underlying anxieties (Kris) or ambivalence (Bartlett) awaiting an answer, any answer, even if it be but a rumor.

That American psychologists find people less rational than they might be, in scientific experiments on suggestion, prestige and aspiration, cannot be laid entirely to cultural predilections, their subjects' or their

own (Mannheim). For it is an often complex world that man must fathom; and there are severe limitations in our tools and capacities, both individual and group; and there are the distorting emotional factors which are given such strong root in us in earlier years, when we are especially incompetent to assume fully rational responsibility;—and finally there are the often unmanageable social conditions and traditions dominating the spirit of the state, of the governing authorities. It is to this last factor, the quality of the mass communication of our government, that Katona has here made a concrete contribution, in his practical suggestions for an ultimately more democratic responsibility in the fight against inflation.

(Pvt.) JOSEPH SHOR

Mental Hygiene Unit, ESCRTC, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

SORIA, TEODORO D. *Psicología*. Fifth edition, revised and enlarged by Augustín Mateos. Mexico City: Porrúa Hermanos y Cía., 1942. Pp. 284.

Since a half-century ago, when Oswald Külpe broke with the classificatory presentation of psychology, it has been the style to restrict textbooks to the somewhat spotty data of adventitious experimentation. It is therefore instructive to learn, as from Soria's work, what can be done with classification when used as an approach to modern facts and concepts. His book represents a tour of the field of general psychology rather than a series of side-trips to the better-publicized points of interest. One immediate effect is the preservation of a unity of subject-matter which informs the student clearly as to the scope of psychology among other theoretical interpretations of reality.

Another effect is the clarification of psychology as a *point of view*. Specifically, the debt of psychology in its implications to such thinkers as Descartes and Kant is plainly set forth, and the validity of this despite the philosophical ignorance of any individual psychologist is emphasized. Such effects are due not to any partisan interest in philosophy but to the approach by classification of subject-matter and pursuant analysis into the details.

After relating the scope of psychology to its (by no means exclusive) rooting in the nature of consciousness, and presenting the various methods of psychology, the author proceeds to a closer examination of consciousness and attention. Here the special flavor which he imparts appears in a subsequent discussion of psychical *acts*. The reader to whom Franz Brentano is a half-forgotten name may be impressed by the novelty, in a day of objective functionalism, of Soria's use of act-psychology, and he should be impressed by the virility of its concepts. Thus the topic of sensation is introduced, to be followed by perception, images, memory, imagination, thought and judgment. Presentation of affective activity leads to the treatment of emotions, instinct, habit, will, the self, and character and personality. The motivational aspect draws upon Ribot and Janet. The last two of the 31 chapters are devoted to "psychical states," including dreams, suggestion, hypnosis, etc.

The book reminds one of a review outline, in that extended treatment of any particular item is made impossible by its plan. The author has a gift for summarizing the point of a theory in a sentence, and in connection with any topic all considerable theories are regularly included. Unfortunately, bibliographical references are entirely lacking, and there is no index. Such a book, however, lends itself to use as a central text to be elucidated through lectures and special reading.

Its popularity in Spain carried it through three printings before the author's death. Two further and revised editions, produced by the present editor for Spanish-American use, testify to the continued demand. An accurate description is set forth in the statement that it is "a complete and simple synthesis of present-day psychological knowledge." The uniform clarity of style is not the least of its achievements.

HOWARD DAVIS SPOERL.

American International College.

BOOKS AND MATERIALS RECEIVED

BILLS, A. G. *The psychology of efficiency: a discussion of the hygiene of mental work.* New York: Harper, 1943. Pp. xiv+361.

BOND, G. L., & BOND, EVA. *Teaching the child to read.* New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. ix+356.

BRECKENRIDGE, MARIAN E., & VINCENT, E. LEE. *Child development, physical and psychological development through the school years.* Philadelphia: Saunders, 1943. Pp. ix+592.

CASON, ELOISE B. *Mechanical methods for increasing the speed of reading.* Teach. Coll. Contr. Educ., No. 878. New York: Bur. Publ., Teachers Coll., Columbia Univ., 1943. Pp. viii+80.

CHILD, I. L. *Italian or American? The second generation in conflict.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1943. Pp. 208.

DAVIDSON, HELEN H. *Personality and economic background.* New York: King's Crown Press, 1943. Pp. x+189.

DOHERTY, W. B., & RUNES, D. D. *Rehabilitation of the war injured.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1943. Pp. 684.

DUNCAN, J. *The education of the ordinary child.* New York: Ronald Press, 1943. Pp. viii+240.

FERREE, C. E. (Ed.). *Studies in physiological optics.* Vol. III, December 1934 to November 1938; Vol. IV, December 1939 to November 1942. Baltimore, 1942.

HARRELL, RUTH FLINN. *Effect of added thiamine on learning.* Teach. Coll. Contr. Educ., No. 877. New York: Bur. Publ., Teachers Coll., Columbia Univ., 1943. Pp. v+55.

MCNALLY, H. J. *The readability of certain type sizes and forms in sight-saving classes.* Teach. Coll. Contr. Educ., No. 883. New York: Bur. Publ., Teachers Coll., Columbia Univ., 1943. Pp. vi+71.

MCMAMARA, SISTER JUSTA. *The teachability of certain concepts in modern European history in the secondary school.* Johns Hopk. Univ. Stud. Educ., No. 33. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1943. Pp. xiv+172.

NEWCOMB, T. M. *Personality and social change.* New York: Dryden Press, 1943. Pp. 225.

REMMERS, H. H., & GAGE, N. L. *Educational measurement and evaluation.* New York: Harpers, 1943. Pp. ix+580.

RUNES, D. D. (Ed.). *Twentieth century philosophy.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1943. Pp. 571.

WOLFF, W. The expression of personality. New York: Harpers, 1943. Pp. 334.

YERKES, R. M. Chimpanzees: a laboratory colony. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1943. Pp. xv+321.

YOUNG, P. T. Emotion in man and animal. New York: John Wiley, 1943. Pp. xiii+422.

———. Psychology for the fighting man. Committee of the National Research Council with the collaboration of Science Service. Washington: The Infantry Journal, 1943. Pp. 456.

NOTES AND NEWS

AGNES LOW ROGERS died, July 16, at the age of fifty-eight years, in Angus, Scotland. Dr. Rogers has been an instructor in English (1906-08) at St. Andrews University (Scotland), and lecturer in logic, ethics, and psychology at Aberdeen University (Scotland), (1911-14). Coming to the United States in the latter year, she served as an assistant and lecturer in educational psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University (1915-18); as professor of education, Goucher College (1918-23); as professor of education, Smith College (1923-25); and as professor of psychology and education, Bryn Mawr College, 1925-27. She was the author of "Experimental Tests of Mathematical Ability and their Prognostic Value" (1918), and of many papers on philosophical, psychological, and educational subjects.

The establishment of a new loan fund at Ohio University to be known as the JAMES P. PORTER LOAN FUND IN PSYCHOLOGY was announced recently by DR. A. C. ANDERSON, professor of psychology, who headed a committee to formulate plans to honor Dr. Porter upon his recent retirement from the teaching faculty. The money for the loan fund was contributed by former students and by members of the psychology department staff. At a dinner, Dr. Porter was presented with a book of letters from former students. Dr. Porter, who came to Ohio University as professor of psychology in 1922, retired from teaching and was elected professor emeritus on July 30 of this year. For many years Professor Porter was editor of the *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

DONALD G. MARQUIS has been appointed Director of the Office of Psychological Personnel, to succeed STEUART H. BRITT, who has been commissioned in the Navy. Mrs. JANE D. MORGAN has been appointed Assistant to the Director.

AUSTIN H. RIESEN, assistant professor of psychology at Yale University and research assistant in the Infant Studies Program of the Yerkes Laboratories of Primate Biology, Orange Park, Fla., has been granted leave of absence to enter the Army Air Corps as First Lieutenant at the School of Aviation Medicine, Randolph Field, Texas.

ELAINE F. KINDER, chief psychologist at Rockland State Hospital, Orangeburg, New York, has been given a year's leave of absence to undertake research with the Infant Studies Program at the Yerkes Laboratories of Primate Biology, Orange Park, Fla. ANGELA FOLSOM has been appointed acting chief psychologist in charge of the psychology department at Rockland State Hospital during Dr. Kinder's absence.

SAUL ROSENZWEIG, formerly research associate in psychology at the Worcester State Hospital and assistant professor (affiliate), Clark University, on July 1, 1943, became chief psychologist at the Western State Psychiatric Hospital, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, with a teaching affiliation in the department of psychology at the University of Pittsburgh. The Western State Psychiatric Hospital has been recently opened as a re-

search and training institute under the direction of Dr. Grosvenor B. Pearson. Its department of psychology includes besides Dr. Rosenzweig, LOURENE E. BUNDAS, psychologist; KELLY LUMRY and HELEN DAVIDSON, assistant psychologists. Plans are being made for establishing this fall several psychological internships which may be combined with graduate work at the University. Applications may be addressed to the director of the Hospital.

E. N. BARNHART, formerly in charge of the motion picture content analysis of the Bureau of Intelligence of OWI is now working in the Office of Strategic Services, Washington, D. C.

JAMES H. ELDER, of the department of psychology of the Louisiana State University, has leave of absence to enable him to serve as psychologist in the office of the chief signal officer of the War Department, Washington, D. C.

HERMAN G. CANADY, has been promoted to a full professorship in psychology and philosophy at West Virginia State College (Institute, W. Va.)

WARD C. HALSTEAD, assistant professor of experimental psychology, Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, was elected to associate membership in the American Neurological Association at its recent New York meeting.

STEPHEN HABBE has joined the staff of the Life Insurance Sales Research Bureau in Hartford, Conn.

Wilson College on May 31st conferred the honorary degree of doctor of science on DR. GERTRUDE RAND, research associate in Ophthalmology on the Knapp Foundation, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University.

STANLEY G. DULSKY has been appointed Assistant to the Director of Job Training, Stromberg-Carlson Co., Rochester, N. Y.

DONALD R. GORHAM, head of the department of Christian education, Eastern Baptist Theological Seminary, Philadelphia, has been appointed professor of education and psychology, Keuka College (Keuka Park, N. Y.) and will also serve as director of the bureau of placement.

Recent appointees to the Delaware Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene are: Mrs. RUTH LANE, psychoeducational examiner and audiometrician for the southern part of the state; Miss ELEANOR WIRTH, lip-reading teacher for the Wilmington area; Mrs. MURIEL MITCHELL, speech correctionist for Wilmington, and Miss FLORENCE RICHARDS, formerly of the Woods School, teacher of a special class for the mentally retarded in Wilmington. Mrs. CATHARINE L. HULTSCH continues as psychoeducational examiner in the Wilmington Schools, while VIRGINIA WALLIN's work as psychoeducational and audiometric examiner will cover the area between Dover and the Pennsylvania

border. Dr. J. E. W. WALLIN is serving as chairman of the Delaware Committee on Problems Affecting the Hard of Hearing, of the Committee on Handicapped Children of the Wilmington Community Council on Youth, and of the Delaware Council on the Handicapped.

The Philosophical Library has agreed to sponsor the publications of a *Yearbook of Psychology*, the initial volume to be published early in 1944. The plans call for a scholarly volume which will present the significant trends, developments, and research in contemporary psychology. Contributions in the form of original articles or reprints are invited. Communications should be addressed to the Editor, PHILIP LAWRENCE HARRIMAN, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.

The Indiana Academy of Science, invites Indiana psychologists, whether members of the Academy or not, to submit abstracts for 10 minute papers which have practical implications for winning the war or for post-war reconstruction to be presented at the Indianapolis meeting October 28, 29, and 30. Abstracts in form suitable for publication should be sent to the chairman of the Psychology Section, W. A. KERR, Personnel Planning and Research, RCA Victor Division, Radio Corporation of America, Camden, N. J.

The Executive Council of the American Society for Aesthetics met at Columbia University on May 23d, and completed the organization of the Society by adopting a constitution. Two types of membership were established: active and associate. The latter is open without restriction to all who are interested in theoretical studies of the arts and related fields. The former is restricted to persons actively working along these lines, who have demonstrated mature ability and achievement therein. Annual dues for either type are three dollars, and applications for membership or information are to be sent to the Secretary-Treasurer.

The aim of the Society was stated as "promoting study, research, discussion, and publication in aesthetics." "Aesthetics" is understood to include "all studies of art and related types of experience from a philosophical, psychological, scientific, historical, critical, or educational point of view, with emphasis on general aspects and interrelations." The term "art" is to include all the arts—fine and applied; visual, literary, and musical, theater, dance and film, as well as painting, sculpture, and architecture.

Officers and members of the Council are as follows: *President*, THOMAS MUNRO, The Cleveland Museum of Art, Cleveland, O.; *Vice-president*, VAN METER AMES, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, O.; *Secretary-treasurer*, MAX SCHOEN, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.; GEORGE BOAS, CURT J. DUCASSE, IRWIN EDMAN, KATHARINE GILBERT, THEODORE M. GREENE, STEPHEN C. PEPPER, CARROLL C. PRATT, and RALPH B. WINN.

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